



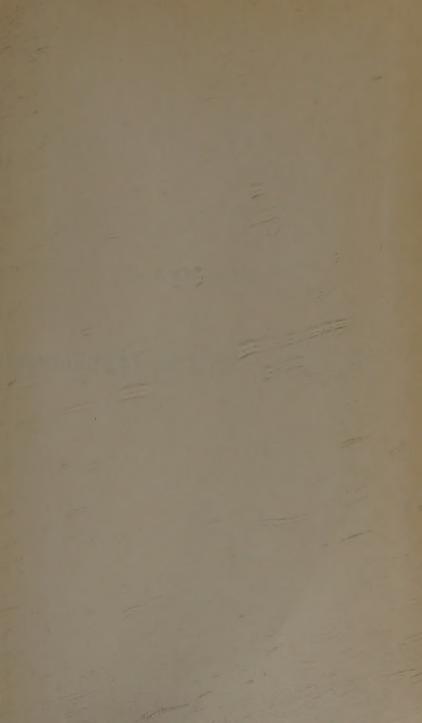
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### A GRAMMAR

OF THE

# HINDŪSTĀNĪ OR URDŪ LANGUAGE.



PK 1986 P5 1909

A

# GRAMMAR

OF THE

Parza.

## HINDŪSTĀNĪ

OR

### URDŪ LANGUAGE

BY

### JOHN T. PLATTS

LATE AN INSPECTOR OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE CENTRAL PROVINCES OF INDIA

FIFTH IMPRESSION



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### PREFACE.

THE Grammar now offered to the public was begun in India many years ago; but its progress was so retarded by illness, press of official work, and other causes, that on my return to England about eighteen months ago, searcely a third of it was in a form ready for the press.

It owes its origin to certain Indian friends, whose arguments, backed by the results of my own reading and observation, led me to conclude—(1) that, much as had been achieved in the field of Urdū Grammar by Europeans (and especially by Englishmen), that field had not been so thoroughly worked but that a great deal more might be won from it; (2) that no small portion of the work which had been done was of a kind that afforded room for improvement.

In justification of the first of these opinions, I would refer my readers to the large quantity of what is believed to be absolutely new matter that is to be found in almost every part of this work, and especially in the sections which treat of—(1) gender; (2) numerals; (3) Persian and Arabic constructions; (4) causal verbs; (5) compound verbs; (6) particles; (7) derivation of words; and in almost every chapter of the Syntax. In support of the second, I would point to the sections which treat of the construction—(1) of verbs and adjectives in connection with the broken plurals of the Arabic; (2) of nominal and frequentative verbs; (3) of the accusative

PREFACE.

case; (4) of predicative adjectives in construction with factitive verbs; (5) of the participles; and also to the sections which notice the different uses of the fragmentary verbs hai and tha, and the tenses of the subjunctive mood. In respect of some of these, the views propounded are so directly opposed to those maintained by preceding grammarians, that I have felt constrained to support them by foot-notes, remarks, citations from native grammars, and the opinions of native scholars; and thus the work has to some extent assumed a polemical character, for which I consider that some apology is due. This I offer the more readily, as I am conscious of being actuated by no motive beyond the simple desire to establish what, supported by the best native authorities, I hold to be correct views of the constructions in question.

Besides the additions and changes referred to above, I may also, I believe, claim to have succeeded in reducing to rule some constructions which have hitherto been, regarded as arbitrary. And here I may be permitted to observe that there is little in the structure of Urdu of the loose and arbitrary character which some recent writers on the grammar of the language impute to it. It may be difficult to discover the rules for certain constructions; and, in many instances, native scholars, no doubt, are unable to assign a satisfactory reason for the forms they use; but it is surely inconsequent to conclude from these facts that rules in such cases cannot be discovered, and that native scholars cannot be trusted to compose correctly in their own tongue. That "writers are guided by usage rather than by rule, and test the accuracy of a passage by

PREFACE. vii

the ear rather than by any recognized law," is, in the main, true. But this practice is by no means confined to Urdu writers; nor are they a whit more liable to err in following the guidance of usage and the ear than the many excellent speakers and writers in other living tongues who follow the same guides. Indeed, as far as constructions which constitute the marked peculiarities of the language are concerned, it may be safely affirmed that Urdū writers of even ordinary ability are searcely likely to make a slip. When therefore a form or expression occurs in one or more standard authors which appears to violate some well-known rule, a foreigner would do well to pause ere he condemns it as a "transgression"; for it is infinitely more probable that he has not understood the construction, than that the authors have committed a palpable solecism.

One of the features peculiar to this Grammar which I would notice here are the remarks and notes that touch upon the derivation and origin of words, and the formation of the cases and tenses-a subject upon which so much light has been thrown of late years by the study of comparative grammar. Students of Urdū and Hindi in the schools of India especially will, I trust, find this portion of the work both interesting and instructive; -and not only students, but those also who speak and write Urdu with perfect facility and accuracy. For it is notorious that Urdū scholars (and especially Mohammadans) are grossly ignorant of the origin of such words and inflexions in their language as are not derived from the Persian and Arabic. And the general restriction of their studies to these languages alone puts it out of their power to acquire a knowledge of the viii PREFACE.

linguistic discoveries of modern philologists in fields lying apart from them.

The arrangement and nomenclature of the work differ somewhat from those of preceding grammars. The declensions have been reduced to two; the numerals are noticed immediately after the attributive adjective; and the sections on Persian and Arabic constructions, treating as they do of substantives, adjectives, and numerals, it has been judged advisable to introduce immediately after the Urdū (Hindī) numerals, with the view of keeping the same parts of speech as much as possible together. These sections are, as has been already hinted, fuller and more complete than any notice of Persian and Arabic inflexions that has hitherto appeared in a grammar of Hindūstānī. Full as they are however, it would be presumptuous to say that they comprise all the constructions that occur in the language. But I trust I may say that they contain few that do not occur. The student will find it to his advantage to read these sections through—without dwelling on them at first; but more carefully on a second perusal, after he has made some acquaintance with Urdū literature; for Persian and Arabic, although not the back-bone, so to speak, form very important members of Urdu, and hence a knowledge of some of the principal facts of their inflexion is indispensable to a correct understanding and use of the language.

The examples under the more important rules of the Syntax are numerous and varied. In their selection I have not confined myself to the Bāg o Bahār and a few other works compiled about the same comparatively remote period—works which, however excellent they

PREFACE. ix

may be, can hardly be supposed to furnish examples of all the constructions and idioms current even in their day, much less of those now in use; and which may certainly be supposed to contain not a little that is now obsolete or rare-but have also drawn from more modern works, such as the Fasāna'ě 'Ajā'ib, the Urdū Reader (a work published under the authority of the Government of the N.W. Provinces of India), etc., and also from some of the best native newspapers; e.g. the Shoʻla'č Tūr of Kanhpur, and the 'Aligarh Institute Gazette: Should the examples under some of the rules be regarded as too copious, I would urge the importance of the rules themselves in such cases, or the misconception that has hitherto prevailed respecting the constructions exemplified; and also that, while the copiousness of the examples is calculated to impress the rules on the student's mind, their generally varied character and full propositional form will have the advantage of introducing him to diversities both of idiom and style.

In the preparation of the work I have made free, but not, I trust, unfair, use of the Grammars of my predecessors, and especially of those published in recent years by native scholars: e.g. the Urdū Grammar of M. Imām Bakhsh of the Dehlī College; the Kawā'idu'lmubtadī of M. Karīmu'd-dīn; the Kawā'idĕ Urdū (a work published under the authority of the Government of the North-West Provinces of India). I have also obtained much assistance from the following works: (1) the Prākrita-Prakāśa of Professor Cowell; (2) the Sindhī Grammar of Dr. Trumpp (a work to which I am greatly indebted for direct help as well as numerous hints touching the derivation of Hindī words); (3) the Gram-

matica Linguae Persicae of Dr. Vullers; (4) the Arabic Grammar of Professor Wright. And, lastly, I have at various times obtained much valuable information from several native scholars in India, and especially from Maulavīs Shaikh 'Abdullāh of Kānhpūr, Moḥammad Rizā of Ilāhābād, 'Alī Asgar of Ajmer, and Ṣafdar 'Alī of Jabalpūr, to whom I take this opportunity of offering my grateful thanks for the aid they were always so ready to afford me in my Oriental studies.

In spite of the greatest possible care in preparing the MS. and correcting the press, some omissions and errors have been discovered in the work, and it is probable that others of a not very serious character (as, for example, the omission of dots and vowel marks) have escaped detection. It must not be imagined, however, that every instance of omission of a long vowel mark is an oversight. The Persian numeral  $d\bar{u}$ , for example, is generally written du, because the vowel is pronounced short; and the long vowel of the Arabic words  $f\bar{\imath}$ ,  $z\bar{u}$ , etc., being always shortened in pronunciation before the conjunctive alif, is of course not marked long. A list of such errors as have been discovered is given further on, and the reader is requested to correct them in the text before perusing it.

JOHN T. PLATTS.

### CONTENTS.

CHAP. I.	THE LETTERS AS CONSONANTS		1
	THE LETTERS, PRONUNCIATION OF		4
	THE VOWELS AND OTHER ORTHOGRAPHIC SIGNS .		9
	Short Vowels		9
	Tanwin or Nunation.		10
	Jazm		10
	Tashdid		11
	Long Vowels and Diphthongs		11
	Hamza		13
	Wasl.		16
	Madd		17
	DIVISION OF A WORD INTO SYLLABLES		17
	NUMERICAL VALUE OF THE LETTERS ,	2.	3, 18
	Special Numerical Figures	_,	19
	EXERCISE IN READING		19
CHAD II	THE PARTS OF SPEECH		21
UHAF. II.			$\frac{21}{22}$
	I. THE ARTICLE.	•	23
	II. THE NOUN-SUBSTANTIVE		23
	1. Gender	•	$\begin{array}{c} 23 \\ 24 \end{array}$
	Masculine by Form		27
	Feminine by Form	•	30
	2. Number		33
	Plural of Masculine Nouns	•	33
	Plural of Feminine Nouns		34
	3. Declension	•	36
	Postpositions used in forming the Cas	208	37
	The Formative	303	38
	The First Declension		39
	The Second Declension	•	42
	Construction of the Genitive Case		43
	111. THE ADJECTIVE.	•	44
	Declension.		44
	Comparison		46
	T / * TI		47
	Adjective of Similitude	•	48
	IV. Numerals		49
	Cardinals	•	50
	Ordinals		55
	Collective Numerals	•	55
	Distributives and Multiplicatives.		57
	Numeral Adverbs	•	57
	Fractional Numbers		58
		4	60
	Raķam		OU

[PERSIAN CONSTRUCTIONS	61
GENDER AND DECLENSION OF NOUNS	61
Construction of the Genitive Case	61
Compounds formed by Inverting this Con-	
struction	62
Construction of the Vocative Case	63
Formation of the Plural	63
CONSTRUCTION OF AN ADJECTIVE	64
Compounds formed by Inverting this Con-	
	64
struction	64
THE INFINITIVE AND ROOT	65
VERBAL ADJECTIVES	65
VERBAL ADJECTIVES Past and Passive Participles	65
Active Participles, Nouns of Agency, etc	66
Suffixes forming Nouns of Agency, Attributives, etc.	69
Possessive Adjectives	70
	73
Adjectives denoting Similitude	7.4
A directives denoting Fitness	75
Adjectives denoting Similature	76
Adjectives denoting Colour	78
Adjectives denoting Colour Adjectives denoting Companionship	78
Nounce of Place	79
A between Newson	
Austract Nouns.	81
Diminutives	83
Compounds	83
Adjectives denoting Companionship Nouns of Place Abstract Nouns Diminutives Compounds Copulative Compounds Numeral Adjectives Cardinals	84
NUMERAL ADJECTIVES	85
Cardinais	85
Urainais	86
Cardinals	86
munipheanves, and Numeral Adverts .	87
ARABIC CONSTRUCTIONS	87
Infinitive or Verbal Nouns of the Ground Form.	88
V	
VERBAL NOUNS OF THE DERIVED FORMS	92
VERBAL ADJECTIVES VERBAL NOUNS OF THE DERIVED FORMS VERBAL ADJECTIVES OF THE DERIVED FORMS.	96
Possessive Adjectives	98
RELATIVE ADJECTIVES	99
RELATIVE ADJECTIVES ABSTRACT NOUNS OF QUALITY	
Nouns of Place and Time.	101
DIMINUTIVES.	102
DECLERATOR	102
Recular Plurals	108
Broken Plurale	103
Declension .  Regular Plurals Broken Plurals .  Numbers, Cardinal and Ordinal Distributives Multiplication Frontier	105
Distributivos Multiplications Tourse	112
Distributives, Multiplicatives, Fractions .	113
v. The Personal Pronouns	110
Declension	113
	115

PAGE

CONTENTS.							XII
CHAP. II. (continued)							
and the same of th							PAG
vi. The Demonstrative Pronouns Declension vii. The Relative Pronoun viii. The Correlative Pronoun ix. The Interrogative Pronoun x. The Indefinite Pronoun Emphatic Forms Compound Forms xi. The Reflexive Pronoun The Pronomen Reverentice xii. Reciprocal Pronouns.	3	•	•		٠		116
Declension . ,	•	•		•			117
VII. THE KELATIVE PRONOUN .		•	•		•		118
VIII. THE CORRELATIVE PRONOUN	•	•		•		•	120
IX. THE INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN		•	•		•		120
X. THE INDEFINITE PRONOUN	•	•				•	122
Emphatic Forms		•	•		•		122
Compound Forms .	•	•				•	128
XI. THE REFLEXIVE PRONOUN		•	•		٠		124
The Pronomen Reverenting	•	•				•	125
XII. RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS XIII. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS . XIV. PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES .		•	•				126
XIII. Possessive Pronouns .		•		•			126
XIV. PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES .		•	•		•		127
CHAP, III. THE VERB							
THE INFINITIVE OR GERUND .							129
THE NOUN OF AGENCY							130
THE IMPERFECT AND PERFECT PARTI	CII	LES					131
Irregular Participles .							132
Declension of the Participle	es						133
THE PAST CONJUNCTIVE PARTICIPLE							134
THE IMPERATIVE							135
THE PRECATIVE							136
THE SIMPLE TENSES				Ť			139
The Agrist			Ť				139
The Past Indefinite		·		·		ľ	141
The Past Conditional			Ċ		i.		142
THE COMPOUND TENSES		·		·			142
The Future			·		•		149
The Present Imperfect				•			143
The Past Imperious.					•		140
The Passent Perfect				•		•	144
The Dust Dowfoot			•		•		145
Who Post Detential				•		•	145
Correspondent Active Voyan			•		•		140
The Work Tilles (to write				•		•	147
The Verb Chalus (to write	٠.		•		•		150
The Verb Chaina, to go.		•		•		•	150
The vero Hona, to be	•		٠		•		100
Additional Tenses		•		•		٠	150
CONJUGATION OF THE PASSIVE VOICE	۰		٠		٠		107
DERIVATIVE VERBS				•		٠	101
I. CAUSAL VERBS			•		٠		101
II. DENOMINATIVE VERBS				4		٠	167
III. COMPOUND VERBS AND FORMS	•		٠		٠		169
Nominals		•				•	169
Intensives .					•		170
Potentials						•	171
CHAP. III. The Verb  The Infinitive or Gerund The Noun of Agency The Imperfect and Perfect Participles Declension of the Participle The Past Conjunctive Participle The Imperative The Precative The Precative The Past Indefinite The Past Conditional The Past Conditional The Past Imperfect The Past Imperfect The Past Imperfect The Past Imperfect The Past Perfect The Past Perfect The Past Potential Conjugation of the Active Voice The Verb Likhnā, 'to write The Verb Honā, 'to go' Th	,						172
Continuatives and Staticals							173
Frequentatives							175
Desideratives							176

### CONTENTS.

Derivative Verbs (continued)	NAGR
Transitives formed with a Conj. Part.	177
Inceptives, Permissives, Acquisitives	178
Desideratives, Reiteratives	179
CHAP. IV. Particles	101
I, ADVERBS	181
Original Hindī Adverbs	181
Nouns in the Locative or Ablative Case.	182
Pronominal Adverbs	183
Compound Adverbs	187
Persian Adverbs	188
Arabic Adverbs	189
II. PREPOSITIONS AND POSTPOSITIONS	191
Genuine Postpositions governing the Formative	192
Postpositions which govern the Genitive or	193
the Formative	
Postpositions, originally Hindī Nouns (masc.)	194
Postpositions, originally Persian Nouns .	195
Postpositions, originally Arabic Nouns	196
Persian and Arabic Prepositions	199
III. CONJUNCTIONS	200
iv. Interjections	201
CHAP. V. Derivation of Words	203
I. Abstract Nouns	203
II. Nouns of Agency, Attributives, etc	208
III. DIMINUTIVES	216
IV. COMPOUNDS	218
	210
SYNTAX.	
CHAP. VI. I. THE PARTS OF A SENTENCE	223
II. THE ORDER OF THE WORDS IN A SENTENCE.	<b>2</b> 28
III. CONCORD OF THE SUBJECT AND PREDICATE .	236
CHAP. VII. a. THE ABSENCE OF THE ARTICLE.	244
b. The Relation of Substantives in a Sentence	245
I. THE NOMINATIVE	246
II. THE AGENT	248
III. THE GENITIVE	250
IV. THE DATIVE	260
v. The Accusative	
Compate	264
Double	268
Factitive	268
	269
VI. THE ABLATIVE	272
VII. THE LOCATIVE	281
VIII. THE VOCATIVE	289
CHAP. VIII. Adjectives	
I. ATTRIBUTIVE	290
II. NUMERAL	294
CHAP. IX. PRONOUNS	201
I. PERSONAL.	
A. A. MANOUNCALL o o o o o	298

CONTENTS.							X
CHAP. IX. Pronouns (continued)							PAG
II. DEMONSTRATIVE							30
III. RELATIVE				Ť			30
1. The Conjunctive Sentence					Ž,		30
2. The Qualificative Sentence							31
IV. INTERROGATIVE							31
v. Indefinite							31
VI. REFLEXIVE							32
CHAP. X. THE VERB (ACTIVE VOICE)							
VERBAL NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES .		٠.					32
I. THE INFINITIVE.		ì		•		•	32
II. THE NOUN OF AGENCY					•		32
W D				٠		•	33
IMPERFECT AND PERFECT .							33
PAST CONJUNCTIVE							34
TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE MOOD .	Ť		Ť				34
I. THE AORIST						Ť	343
II. THE INDEFINITE FUTURE.		٠					
III. THE PRESENT							34
IV. THE PAST IMPERFECT							353
							35
v. The Past Indefinite vi. The Present Perfect							35
VII. THE PAST PERFECT							350
THE IMPERATIVE AND PRECATIVE							35
Tenses of the Subjunctive Mood							36
6. The Aorist							363
g. The Present Potential .							366
in. The Past Potential							36
IV. THE PAST CONDITIONAL .							368
THE PASSIVE VOICE							371
CAUSAL VERBS							373
CAUSAL VERBS							373
INTENSIVES, POTENTIALS, COMPLET	CIV:	ES,	Co	NT	INU	J	
ATIVES							37
FREQUENTATIVES, DESIDERATIVES							375

	IV. INTERBUGATIVE	010
	v. Indefinite	317
	VI. REFLEXIVE	320
OTTATE TO		020
CHAP, A.	THE VERB (ACTIVE VOICE)	
	VERBAL NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES	324
	I. THE INFINITIVE	324
	II. THE NOUN OF AGENCY	329
	III. THE PARTICIPLES	331
	IMPERFECT AND PERFECT	331
	I. THE INFINITIVE  II. THE NOUN OF AGENCY  III. THE PARTICIPLES  IMPERFECT AND PERFECT  PAST CONJUNCTIVE  TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE MOOD  I. THE AORIST  II. THE INDEFINITE FUTURE	341
	TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE MOOD	343
	T Tre Andrew	3/13
	TI THE INDESTRUME FRANCE	940
	The Indefinite Polone.	040
	III. THE TRESENT	349
	III. THE PRESENT  IV. THE PAST IMPERFECT  V. THE PAST INDEFINITE.  VI. THE PRESENT PERFECT  VII. THE PAST PERFECT  THE IMPERATIVE AND PRECATIVE	352
	v. The Past Indefinite	353
	VI. THE PRESENT PERFECT	355
	VII. THE PAST PERFECT	356
	THE IMPERATIVE AND PRECATIVE	357
	Tenses of the Subjunctive Mood	361
	6. THE AORIST	361
	c. The Aorist	366
	THE PAST POTENTIAL	367
	in. The Past Potential	368
	Two Descript Votes	271
	THE PASSIVE VOICE	373
	CAUSAL VERBS	0/0
		373
	Intensives, Potentials, Completives, Continu-	
		371
		375
	TRANSITIVES FORMED WITH CONJUNCTIVE PAR-	
	TICIPLES	376
	Phrases	376
	Inceptives, Permissives, etc	377
	Nominals	378
		0.0
CHAP. XI.	PARTICLES	
	ADVERBS	381
	PREPOSITIONS AND POSTPOSITIONS	383
	Conjunctions	386
	COORDINATE COMBINATION	386
	COORDINATE COMBINATION	390
	to and Dimitor Comments	39 <b>5</b>
APPENDIX	Χ	
	THE MOHAMMADAN CALENDAR	396
	THE HINDŪ CALENDAR	398



### HINDŪSTĀNĪ GRAMMAR.

### PART I.-ORTHOGRAPHY.

### CHAPTER J.

#### I. THE ALPHABET.

1. Urdū, or Hindūstānī, though a composite language, is derived mainly from the Hindī. The Persian and Arabic languages have contributed largely, but Hindī is the chief source. Like Persian and Arabic it is written and read from right to left, and books written in it begin at the page which, in an English book, would be the last. The letters (المناقبة المناقبة hurūfu 'ttahaijī) are thirty-five in number, and are all consonants, though three of them are also used as vowels. When grouped into words, they are (with nine exceptions) connected with one another, and several of the letters assume somewhat different shapes according as they stand at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of a connected group. The following Table exhibits the several forms of the letters, along with their names and numerical values.

		Uncon-	Connected Form: Exemplification of						Numeri-
Name.	Power.	rected Form.	Final.	Medial.	Initial.	Final.	Medial.	Initial.	value.
الف alif		1	1	l	1	تَا	بار	آب	1
be	ъ	ب	ب	*	1. 3	جُب	خَير	بَد	.2
=; pe	p	پ	پ	₹	ړ پ	ر تکپ	سپر	پَس	$[2]^{2}$
te تے	t	ت	ب	2,	ڌ تر	مکت	لتُرَو	تب	400
te,or } تے ا ئه ta	#	1. <i>ٿ</i>	ٿ . :	#	<b>"</b> "	هَت	منتز	نَّيپ	[400]
ي قو	<b>.</b>	ث	ث	۵	ژ مر	بَحْث	کثر	ثنا	500
نې jīm جيم	j	<b>ا</b>	7	\$	۸-	لمج	فنجر	جب	3
== che	ch	€	€	÷	٧,	سے	ئچ:	چُپ	[3]
≥ ḥe	Ņ,	7	8	2	۵.	صبح	جثث	حرف	8
in the	<u>kh</u>	خ	ŧ	ż	7.	مين	بخش	خال	600
ال dāl	d	د	۵	۵	٥	بد	فِدا	دست	4
ى قى da	å	٠ڐ	ڐ	ڐ	ڐ	مُنگ	ڒڐۯ	ڈال	[4]
ال يقتر كال	<u>z</u>	ن	ذ	ن	ن	كاغذ	نذر	نات	700
re ري	r	ر	٠.	,	و	جر	برد	راد	200
ra ڙه	r	ڙ	ڙ	ڙ	ڙ	جڙ	بڙا	ڙوڙا	[200]
20 زي	. 2	ا ز	ز	5	ز	گز	. بزم	زر	7
ي zhe ژي	zh	ا ژ	ژ	ۋ ا	ژ	بُرْ	مُثرُده	ژرف	[7]
ه قتم سپن	8	س	س	AU.	س.	بس	نسب	سر	60
shīn شين	sh	<u>ش</u>	m	â	۵	mė	حشر	شب	300

<sup>1</sup> Instead of ", ", etc., the forms b, b, etc., are commonly used in books printed and lithographed in India. The form is peculiar to books printed in England.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The brackets are intended to show that these letters had originally no value, but afterwards received the same value as the cognate Arabic letters

N		Uncon-	Conr	Connected Form: Exemplification of						
Name.	Power.	Form.	Final.	Medial.	Initial.	Final.	Medial.	Initial.	Value.	
عاد şād	ş	ص	ص	4	ح	خلص	قصب	صاف	90	
عقة ضاد عقاد	Į.	ض	ض	بض	ف	بعض	حضر	ضبر	800	
toe طوي	ţ	ط	ط	ط	ط	خط	خطا	طاق	9	
ووي ظوي	z	ظ	ظ	ظ	ظ	حفظ	نظر	ظفر	900	
عين 'ain	'a	ع	2	2	c	صنع	بعد	عسل	70	
ين gain	g	ون	خ	ż	р.	تيغ	بغل	غسل	1000	
fe <u>ف</u> ے	f	ف	ف	غ	ۏ	سلف	سفر	فرح	80	
kāf قاف	ķ	ق	تی	iq	ۊ	طبق	نقل	قمر	100	
كاف kāf	k	ک	ک	2	5	نیک	بكر	کام	20	
gāf گاف	g	گ	گ	\$	5	الگت	مگس	ِ گل	[20]	
lām لام	Z	J	ل	7	3	حمل	طلب	لعل	30	
m3m •	m	•	^	* 5	10	قلم	[قر] [قمر]	مال	40	
nān ئون	n	ن	ن	2.	ا ذ تر	من	منع	نعل	50	
wā'o	w	ا و	9	9	•	بو	<u>ڊور</u>	وحل	6	
as he	h	8	4 ,	<b>₹</b>	۵	نه	(کها) (کها)	هنر	5	
ی یو	y	ی	اري) ارے)	÷	ا ير	(بي) (ب <u>ـ</u> ے)	بید	ياد	10	

Rem. b. I in connection with a preceding J forms the figures J, J. This combination is generally reckoned a letter of the alphabet, and inserted before L, to the perplexity of many grammarians, who, ignorant of the reason why it is placed there, erroneously call it  $l\bar{a}m$ -

alif, whereas it is nothing else than the name of the alif of prolongation (see § 11, Rem. c.) written at full length. It must not be confounded with the consonant \ (or the hamzated alif, or hamza, as it is commonly called), the first letter of the alphabet.

2. To the above letters should be added the aspirated letters of the Devanāgarī, or Alphabet of the Sanskrit, viz. \(\mathbf{n}\) bha, \(\mathbf{n}\) pha, \(\mathbf{n}\) tha, \(\mathbf{n}\) these letters is said to be \(\frac{1}{2}\) is makhlūt, or 'blended' (with the preceding letter). They are represented in Urdū by the combinations \(\frac{1}{2}\), \(\mathbf{n}\), the 'butterfly-or spectacle-shaped' \(h\) (du-chashmī \(h\)) being conventionally used with all except \(\mathbf{n}\) and \(\mathbf{n}\), which letters are not (except, optionally, in the case of a final \(h\), see \(Rem.\, a\), \(\mathbf{n}\) connected with a following letter, and therefore take the initial form of the \(h\) after them.

 never in those derived from the Arabic. ", ", ", and the ten aspirated letters ;, ;, etc., can occur in Hindī words alone. The remaining letters are common to Hindī, Persian, and Arabic words.

3. The letters 1, 2, 3, 3, 1, 5, and are joined to a preceding letter, provided it be not one of their own number, but not generally to a following one. The letters 2 and 2 are connected with both a preceding and a following letter, but their form remains unchanged.

Rem. The above rule is strictly true only of the printed character. In writing and in lithographed books these letters, with the exception of l, are frequently joined to a following h, if it be final: e.g.  $\frac{1}{2} d\bar{l} da$ .

4. The correct pronunciation of some of the letters, as, for example,  $\tau$  and  $\xi$ , it is scarcely possible for a European to acquire. Most of them, however, are sufficiently represented by the corresponding English characters, as may be seen from the following remarks:

\(^1 alif, or hamza (as it is commonly called, to distinguish it from the alif of prolongation), is the spiritus lenis of the Greeks. It may be compared with h in the English hour.

 $\leftarrow$  and  $\leftarrow$  are cur b and p.

is much softer and more dental than the English t. In pronouncing it, the tip of the tongue should be placed against the edge or the back of the upper teeth.

has a heavier sound than our t, but it represents it more closely than does. In pronouncing it the tip of the tongue is applied to the back part of the mouth.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This t is termed تَأْتُ مُثَقَّلًا  $t\bar{a}'\check{e}$  muşakkala 'the heavy t,' and the same epithet is applied to the letters عُمَّا عُمَّا عُمَّا عُمَّا اللهُ عُمَّا اللهُ عُمَّا اللهُ عَمَّا اللهُ عَمَا اللهُ عَمَّا اللهُ عَمَا اللهُ عَمَا اللهُ عَمَّا عَمَا عَمَّا عَمَّا عَمَا عَمَّا عَمَا عَمَّا عَمَا عَمَّا عَمَا عَمَّا عَمَا عَمَّا عَمَا عَمَا عَمَا عَمَا عَمَّا عَمَا عَمَا عَمَا عَمَّا عَمَا عَمَاعِهُ عَمَا عَمَا عَمَا عَمَاعِمَا عَمَا عَمَا عَمَا عَمَا عَمَا عَمَا عَمَا عَمَا عَمَا عَمَا

are all sounded alike, like our hard s in sit.1

 $\overline{\epsilon}$  has the sound of j in the English jail.

is the English ch, as in church.

 $\overline{\zeta}$  is a very sharp, but smooth guttural aspirate, stronger than s, but not rough like  $\dot{\overline{\zeta}}$ . Its sound approximates to that of our h in huge.

is softer and more dental than our d. It is pronounced in the same way as our \_\_\_, by placing the tongue against the back of the upper teeth.

 $\ddot{\mathbb{S}}$  has a sound resembling the English d in d ame; but it is generally heavier. It is pronounced by applying the tip of the tongue to the back part of the roof of the mouth.

ن, ن, ف and ظ have all one sound in Urdū, viz. that of our z in zeal.

, is, in all positions, a distinctly uttered lingual r, as pronounced by the French and Germans.

" is a heavy sounding r, uttered by turning the tip of the tongue towards the roof of the mouth, as in the case of  $\ddot{\mathbb{S}}$ , with which letter it is interchangeable.

f has the sound of our z in azure.

is represented by our sh, as in shut.

b is a strongly palatal t; but by all except, perhaps, the educated Musalman, it is pronounced like  $\Box$ .

e has a strong guttural sound, pronounced by a smart compression of the upper part of the wind-pipe, and forcible emission of the breath. Its correct pronunciation is rarely heard in India, and is scarcely to be acquired by a European.

 $\dot{\varepsilon}$  is a guttural g, accompanied by a grating or rattling sound as in

is pronounced like our th in thing; من like s in sit; من somewhat like ss in hiss; كا like th in this; j as the common English z; ف like a strongly articulated palatal d; and b, either like o, or as a strongly articulated palatal z.

gargling, of which English affords no example. The Northumbrian r, and the French r in grasseye, are approximations to it.

is our f.

is a strongly articulated guttural k, of which we have no example in English. It closely resembles the sound uttered by a crow in its caw.

is our k.

has the sound of our g in get, give; never that of g in gen, gaol, gibe.

J, are exactly equivalent to the English l, m.

نام has three distinct sounds: it has the sound of the English n in not—1) When it occurs at the beginning of a word or syllable, as نام nām; 2) at the end of a word or syllable, when preceded by a short vowel, as به ban; 3) in all Arabic words in which it is not immediately followed by به b. It is nasal (عنف gunna), or indistinct (نف khafā), like the French n in bon—1) When it is quiescent (i.e. not movent), and immediately preceded by a long vowel; e.g. المؤت barson, برضو barson, المؤت barson, المؤت المؤت أنش أنه أنش أنه أنش movent) and it is quiescent, and is immediately followed by a quiescent letter; e.g. بالمألفة أنش phansnā, بنش phansnā, المؤت munh. It has the sound of m in all Persian and Arabic words in which it is immediately followed by به منف p; and generally in Hindī words also, if a short vowel precede it; e.g. المؤت ambon, عنب tambīh, عنب ambar,

There are numerous exceptions to the rule in the case of Hindî words; a good test, perhaps, is the method of writing: if a word can be written with either n or m (before b or p), the n invariably has the sound of m: e.g. لتبا or before b or p), the n invariably has the sound of m: e.g. راه المساقة ال

رثنا champā, لنّبا lambā.—In these pages nasal n, when final, will be printed without the dot, thus  $\sigma$ ; and in the Roman character it will, in all positions, be indicated by n with a dot (n).

Rem. a. Final h can only be silent when it is not an original letter. It is found chiefly in Persian and Arabic words, in the latter of which it is a servile letter forming (originally) feminine nouns: e.g. and malika, 'queen,' from indicated malika, 'king;' muhāwara, 'idiom,' from the Arabic fem. muhāwarat: in the former it is used simply to convey the sound of the preceding short vowel (fatha).

Rem. b. Of the medial forms of h, z is conventionally used to aspirate the letters y, y, etc., as has been shown in § 2, the form z being employed when it is to be pronounced as a separate letter; but this distinction is not generally regarded in India.

The aspirated letters  $\Leftrightarrow bh$ ,  $\Leftrightarrow ph$ , etc., are uttered with a greater effort of breath than usual, and by one action of the vocal organ; there is no pause between the b, p, etc., and the h. The only one of these

letters which has an English equivalent is  $\mathcal{Z}$ , which is seunded like th in our thick. The sounds of ph, th, etc., are said by grammarians to resemble those of the same combinations in our words, up-hill, hot-house, etc.; but this is searcely correct.

### II. THE VOWELS AND OTHER ORTHOGRAPHIC SIGNS.

- 5. The following signs are used to indicate the short vowels:
- 1) (called فَتَّعَهُ fatha, or يَرُو zabar).¹ It is written above the consonant after which it is sounded, and is invariably pronounced like our a in cedar, or our u in bun: e.g. بَن ban, 'a forest.'
- 2) (called کَسُرَة kasra, or ير zer). It is written beneath the consonant after which it is pronounced, and has the sound of our *i* in pin: e.g. بي bin, 'without.'
- 3) (called نَمْ zamma, or پيش pcsh). It is written over the consonant to which it belongs, and has the sound of u in pull: e.g. يُل pul, 'a bridge.'
- Rem. b. The three short vowels are collectively termed haralat, 'motions;' and the letter which is accompanied by one of them is said to be important mutaharrik, or 'movent.'

<sup>1</sup> Fatha, kasra, zamma, are the Arabic names for the short vowels; zabar, zer, pesh, the Persian: both are commonly used by the native grammarians.

### TANWIN.

Rem. a. If a word end in \, the tanwin with hamza (§ 13) is written after it; e.g. الْبُدُاءُ bblida'an, 'firstly,' 'originally.'

Rom. b. The tanwin of zamma rarely occurs in Urdū; that of kasra perhaps never.

### JAZM OR SUKUN.

7. When a consonant is not accompanied by one of the three short vowels fatha, kasra, and zamma, that is to say, when it occurs at the end of a shut syllable (and is therefore not منز mutaharrik, or 'movent'), it is termed majzūm, 'amputated,' or منز sākin, 'resting' or 'quiescent,' and is then marked with the orthographic sign —, called منز jazm, 'amputation,' or منز sukūn, 'rest,' which serves, when another syllable follows, to separate the two, e.g. ماز mārnā, 'to beat,' masjid, 'a mosque.'

<sup>1</sup> The word quiescent is to be understood in its original signification of not moving, and not in the secondary sense of 'not sounded,' that it has in English grammar.

Rem. a. When two or more quiescent letters occur together in a word, the first alone is termed مَوْتُوفُ sākin, and the others are termed مَوْتُوفُ maukūf, 'supported,' or 'dependent on;' e.g. in the word dost, 'friend,' the و is termed sākin, but the موست are said to be maukūf.

Rem. b. The jazm is not written over the last letter of a word, although that letter is, in all but a very few cases, quiescent.

Rem. c. A few words begin with two consonants, the first having no vowel; e.g. کیا kyā, 'what,' کیول kyōn, 'why,' کیا brāhman, 'a Brāhman.' It is not customary to write jazm over the first letter in these words, since a quiescent consonant is not supposed to occur at the beginning of a word. When the second of the two letters is r, the first is not unfrequently pronounced with kasra, e.g birāhman. Sometimes the r is elided, as in

#### TASHDID.

8. A consonant that is to be doubled, or 'strengthened,' (مَشَدُّهُ mushaddad) is written only once, but marked with the —, called تَشْدِيد tashdīd, 'strengthening,' e.g. نَتْ tasarruf, 'use,' للاستان kuwwat (not kūwat), 'power.' The first of the double letters ends the preceding syllable, and the second begins the following, as tasar-ruf; and each of them must be distinctly pronounced, and not slurred over as the double letters are in the English words manner, mummy.

Rem. The tashdīd is not generally used in the case of infinitives, the roots of which end in نُسُنّا ; e.g. كَالْنَا jānnā, 'to know,' سُنْنَا sunnā, 'to hear,' not سُنَّا and سُنَّا .

#### LONG VOWELS AND DIPHTHONGS.

9. The long vowels  $(\bar{a}, \bar{\imath}, \bar{u})$  are indicated by placing the marks of the short vowels before the corresponding

letters 1, 9, and  $\underline{\omega}$  respectively, as in the words  $\underline{\partial} b\bar{a}r$ ,  $n\bar{u}r$ ,  $\underline{\partial} b\bar{i}s$ . Long a ( $\bar{a}$ ) is pronounced like our a in far, never like a in ball; long u ( $\bar{u}$ ) is sounded like our u in rule, or our oo in fool; long i ( $\bar{i}$ ) has the sound of our i in the words police, caprice. But the sounds of the long vowels endure much longer in Urd $\bar{u}$  than in English, especially when they occur in the first part, or in the middle of words.

- 10. The combinations على also often form sounds like our o in mole, and the French e in fête (or the English a in fate), e.g. مول mol, 'price,' پیت pet, 'belly.' As these sounds are unknown to the Arabie, they are termed معرف  $maj-h\bar{u}l$ , 'unknown,' in contradistinction to the sounds of  $\bar{u}$  and  $\bar{\imath}$ , which are termed معرف  $mar\bar{u}f$ , 'known.'
- 11. The short vowel falha before ي and , forms the diphthongs ai and au, as exemplified in the English aisle, and the German haus, (or in the English house): e.g. haif, 'pity,' حَيْف ḥauɛ, 'reservoir.'

Rem. a. \, , and , and , when they form vowels, are termed letters of prolongation (حَرُفُ الْمَدُ hurāfu'l madd), because they have the effect of lengthening the preceding short vowels; and عُرُفُ الْمُعُمُّ , 'the letters added to give fullness of sound' (to the preceding homogeneous short vowels). They are merely sounds of prolongation after the short vowels, and cannot have a vowel (that is to say, are quiescent), wherefore they cannot commence a word or syllable. Thus they are distinguished from the consonants \, , , , . . . If , and \( \dec \) be preceded by \( kasra \) and \( zamma \) respectively, they must have a vowel, and are therefore consonants, e.g. \( \dec \) siwā, 'more,' 'except,' \( \dec muyassar, 'attained.' \)

Rem. b. The leiters of prolongation, though they are qui scent, are

not generally marked with jazm; but in certain works printed in England, and g, when they have the  $majh\bar{u}l$  sound, are marked with that sign—or rather with a complete circle, thus تَوْل ko, تَوْل tel; and when they form diphthongs (in which case they might be marked with jazm), with the sign  $\hat{\Delta}$ ; e.g.  $\hat{j}$   $\hat{l}$  aur,  $\hat{l}$ 

Rem. c. The alif of prolongation is, by some grammarians, regarded as a letter of the alphabet, and named l l l, the l with fatha being prefixed to it because it cannot be pronounced at the beginning of its own name, as every other letter can (see l 1, Rem. l).

12. The alif of prolongation is omitted in some Arabic words, but the omission is indicated by the preceding fatha being written perpendicularly: e.g. (for رخمان) rahmān, 'most merciful,' اهذا (for اهذا hāzā, 'that.' The perpendicular fatha represents a small alif.

Rem. a. In a few Arabic words the perpendicular fatha is followed by or ي; in such cases these letters are sounded like the alif of prolongation; e.g. عَمْلُوة salāt, 'prayer,' وَلِيْتَر (or أُولِيْتَر) aulātar, 'better.'

Rem. b. من at the end of a word after fatha is pronounced like 1, which is generally written over it, e.g. من كَوْنِي مَا مَوْنِي da'wā, 'elaim,' لَعُنْ الْمُقْصُورَة ukbā, 'the next world.' This من is termed من alifu'l makṣūra, 'the abbreviated alif,' in contradistinction to 'the lengthened alif' (§ 17). It is so named because, when it comes in contact with 'the conjunctive alif' المُنْ الْوَصَل alifu'l waṣl, § 15), it is shortened in pronunciation before the following consonant. The Persians generally change this من into \.

### THE HAMZATED ALIF, OR HAMZA.

13. Alif, when it is not a mere letter of prolongation, but a consonant, pronounced like the *spiritus lenis*, is distinguished by the mark - hamza (عَمَرُون), either expressed or implied, and is commonly called hamza. When it

occurs at the beginning of a word, the form assumed by the 'soft breathing' is I alone (hamza being understood), e.g. (ia), (ia),

Rem. a. According to Arabic grammarians, a syllable cannot begin with a vowel; but every vowel must be preceded by a symbol indicating the movement of the vocal organ whereby the emission of the breath is produced. Now, in uttering what we regard as an initial vowel, there takes place (in the fauces), according to this theory, a sudden emission of the voice after a total suppression; and this is represented by the symbol i or hamza, which signifies prick, impulse. This effort of utterance (which, not being a vowel, comes to be ranked as a consonant) the Greeks represented by the mark ('). In the pronunciation of an Arab the hamza is a very perceptible articulation, especially at the commencement of a syllable in the middle of a word, preceding a shut syllable; e.g. kör'ān, jur'at (not kŏ-rān, and ju-rat).

- 14. When hamza occurs at the beginning of a syllable not the first in a word, the following cases arise:
- 1). If it be pronounced with fatha, it generally appears in the form of alif with hamza: e.g مُولَّد sū'ar, 'pig,' جُرْأَت 'sū'at, 'daring,' تَوْلَّم 'tau'am, 'twin.'
- 2). If it be accompanied by zamma, and preceded by one of the letters of prolongation, it generally takes the form of hamza alone ( $\stackrel{\cdot}{=}$ ): e.g.  $j\bar{u}'\bar{u}n$ , 'shall, or should, I go?'  $p\bar{u}'on$ , 'foot,'  $\bar{u}n,\bar{u}'on$ , 'tears,'  $\bar{u}n,\bar{u}'on$ , '(if) I live.' If it be moved by kasra, and followed by the majhūl  $\stackrel{\cdot}{=}$ —, hamza alone may be written,

or ئى may be used, but the former is the more common: e.g. ھُوئى or پائىي or پائىي or پائىي or پائىي or پائىي

3). If it is pronounced with kasra, and preceded by a letter of prolongation, or by fatha, it generally passes into  $\dot{z}$  (in which case it is correct to omit the two points of the letter z): e.g. قَائِدُهُ  $jud\bar{u}'\bar{\imath}$ , 'separation,' فَائِدُهُ  $f\bar{u}'ida$ , 'advantage,' عَدْنِيُ  $gunj\bar{u}'ish$ , 'capacity,' 'room,'  $k\bar{u}'\bar{\imath}$ , 'been,  $k\bar{u}'\bar{\imath}$ , 'several.'

Rem. a. i sometimes passes into أو د و.g. مُونَّتُ mu'annas, 'feminine,' mu'annas, 'fem

Rem. b. Hamza is often found at the end of a syllable in Arabic words: e.g. مُوْمَن , تَأْثُير . In such cases the hamza is changed (in Urdū) into the letter of prolongation corresponding to the preceding short vowel: e g. مُومِن tāṣīr, 'effect,' مُومِن mūmin, 'believer.'

Rem. c. The letters \, , and مِ are termed حُرُوف عِلَت har uft 'illat, 'weak letters,' on account of the changes to which they are subject among themselves.

Rem. d. Hamza, as its character indicates, is the abbreviation of e, which is in fact but an aggravation of the spiritus lenis. This may guide the student to some extent in pronouncing the e; but as we have observed before, it is almost impossible for an Englishman to acquire the true pronunciation of this letter; and it is quite impossible to explain the true sound in writing: it must be learned by the ear alone. A Hindū makes scarcely any distinction between the sounds — 'ab,

mouth of an educated Mohammadan they are very different sounds. When we have occasion to write Hindustānī in the Roman character, hamza in the middle of a word will be represented by the Greek symbol ('), and على by that symbol inverted: e.g. pā'on (مَالَّهُ), 'alam (مَالَّهُ). Hamza at the beginning of a word will be omitted.

#### WASL.

15. The mark (≈), called , wasl, 'union,' occurs in Urdu only over the consonant I of the Arabic article JI, in phrases from the Arabic, e.g. أَصِيرُ ٱلْمُومِنِينِ amīru 'l mūminīn, 'Commander of the Faithful,' اَشْرِفُ ٱلْأَشْرَاف ashrafu 'l ashraf, 'the noblest of the noble,' بَالْكُنّ bi'lkull (pronounced bil-kull), 'in the totality,' 'completely.' In such phrases the 1 at the commencement of the article is absorbed by the final vowel of the preceding word and the mark = written over the alif indicates the elision of the spiritus lenis. The, and of prolongation, as also 'the abbreviated alif' (alife maksūra, 5 or 15-, § 12, Rem. b.), are shortened in pronunciation before an alif with waṣl: e.g. فِي ٱلْفَوْرِ fi 'l faur, 'on the instant,' 'instantly,' بُو ٱلْهُوس 'l hawas, 'possessed of desire,' 'desirous,' دَعْوِيُ ٱلْمُتَأَخِّرِين da'wa 'l muta'akhkhirīn, 'the claim, or assertion, of the moderns. These words are فِنْفُور invariably pronounced as though they were written filfaur, دَعُولَمُنَأَ خَرِين bulhawas, دَعُولَمُنَأَ خَرِين da'walmuta'akhkhirīn.

Rem. Alif with wast (أَ) is altogether omitted in the first word of the introductory formula بِسَمِ اللهُ (for المَالِيّ) bismillāh, 'in the name of God,' and also after the Arabic preposition المُعَالَمِين bi'l'ålamīn 'to the worlds.'

Rem. The letters عُرُوفُ , etc., mentioned above, are called الشَّمْسِيَّةُ hurūfu 'shshamsīya, or 'the solar letters,' because the word shams, 'sun,' happens to begin with one of them; and the other letters of the Arabic alphabet are termed عُرُوفُ الْقَمْرِيَّةُ hurūfu'l kamarīya, or 'the lunar letters,' because عَمَرُ kamar, 'moon,' commences with one of them.

#### MADD.

17. At the beginning of a word or syllable the sound of long  $a(\bar{a})$  is represented by the alif of prolongation preceded by the inaudible consonant. The two alifs are commonly represented in writing by one with the sign of prolongation,  $\simeq$ , madd ( $\sim$  i.e. lengthening, extension), placed over it: e.g.  $\bar{a}$ , 'to-day' (for  $\bar{a}$ ),  $\bar{a}$ , 'water,'  $\bar{a}$ ,  $\bar{a}$ , 'to-day' (an only occur at the beginning of a syllable.

Rem. T is called اَلْفِ مَعَدُّون alife mandūda, 'the lengthened alif,' in contradistinction to 'the abbreviated or short alif' (قُبِ مَعْمُورَ عَلَيْهُ اللَّهُ عَالَى اللَّهُ اللَّلَّا اللَّهُ اللَّا اللَّالِمُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ ا

18. The attainment of a correct pronunciation will be materially facilitated by a strict attention to the rule for

dividing a word correctly into syllables. Every syllable begins with a movable consonant, and every word has just as many syllables as it has vowels. Hence a syllable consists of a consonant and a vowel, or a consonant, a vowel, and any following quiescent consonants: e.g. فرفت ha-ra-kat, 'motion,' فرفت ta-bas-sum, 'smile.'

Rem. The short vowels, and other orthographical signs, are rarely to be met with in MSS. and books printed in India, and the points of the final  $\underline{c}$  are frequently dispensed with. However necessary then the aid of the orthographical marks may be to a European student, he should not fail to accustom himself to their omission. In these pages an attempt has been made to mark all the most necessary signs. The short vowel fatha is generally omitted, as also the kasra and zamma when they help to form the majhūl sounds e and o. When the majhūl sound e occurs at the end of a word it is written  $\underline{c}$ , with 'the reversed ye' ( $\underline{c}$ )  $\underline{c}$   $\underline$ 

19. The letters of the alphabet are also used for the purpose of numerical computation—chiefly, if not exclusively, in recording the date of important events: e.g.  $p\bar{a}dsh\bar{a}h\bar{e}shwar\bar{a}b\bar{u}dah\bar{t}$ , 'Ahlī was the king of poets,' wherein the sum of the letters , , , , , etc., amounts to 942 (A.H.), the date of the death of the poet  $Ahl\bar{i}$ ; باخ و بهار  $b\bar{a}g$  o  $bah\bar{a}r$ , where the sum of the numerical values of the letters , , , , , etc., amounts to 1217 A.H., the year in which the work called the  $B\bar{a}g$  o  $bah\bar{a}r$  was completed. The arrangement of the letters of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The  $y\bar{a}$ 'ĕ ma'k $\bar{u}s\bar{i}$ , or 'reversed ye,' can only be employed, in the Arabic character, when connected with a preceding letter.

the alphabet according to their numerical values is called the *abjad*, and is contained in the following eight unmeaning words:

ابْجِد هوز حُطِى كلمَّن صغّفض قُرِشت شخُد ضطُغ The value of each letter will be found in the Table of the Alphabet.

20. The special numerical figures are

which are compounded in exactly the same way as our numerals: e.g. \^\\\ 1873.

21. The following passage, with the transcript in English letters, will serve as a useful exercise in reading for the student, and also to exemplify the most important of the remarks in the preceding paragraphs.

# سِنْدُباد جهازِي كا پهُلا سفر \*

سِنْدْباد نے کہا۔ مَیْں نے جو دَوْلت اَوْر جایْداد اَپْنے باپ کے ترکے سے پائیے تیمی عالم شباب میں عَیّاشِی کُرکے سب خرْچ کر ڈالی۔ اور پیر اَپْنی حماقت اَوْر نادانِی پر مُطّلِع هوکر کمال نادِم اَوْر پشیمان هُوا۔ اَوْر اُس دَوْلتِ کِشِیر اَوْر مال و اسباب کے ضائع کرنیکا بہت افسوس کیا۔ دانِشَمنْدوں کا یہ قَوْل کِه "مُقْلِسِی سے مرْجانا بہتر هی" یاد کرتا اور اُسکو اَپْنے حسب حال پاتا۔ اور میری باپ کا بھی یہی قوّل تھا \* آخِرُ الاَمْر مِیراث کا بچا بچایا جو میری فضُول خرْچیوں سے باقی را گیا تنا سب جمع کرکے بیچا۔ اور تاجرانِ بخری سے اَپنے باب میں مشورہ تنا سب جمع کرکے بیچا۔ اور تاجرانِ بخری سے اَپنے باب میں مشورہ کیا۔ اُنہوں نے مُجہّکو اِجہی صلاح بتالئی ۔ مَیْن نے اُس رُوپی کو رِجارت

میں لگادِیا۔ آؤر تِجارت کا اسّباب خرید کر اُن تاجِروں کے ہمّراَہ بنّدر بائشرا کو گیا۔ آؤر وہاں سے ۔ بَاتِّفاق اُن سَبْکے ۔ جہاز کِرایَہ کرّکے سوار هُؤا \*

### Sindbād jahāzī-kā pahlā safar.

Sindbād-ne kahā, main-ne jo daulat aur jā'edād apne būp-ke tarike-se pā'ī thī, 'ālamĕ shabūb-men 'aiyāshī-karke sab kharch kar dālī, aur phir apnī hamākat aur nā-dānī-par muttali'-hokar kamāl nādim aur pashemān hū'ā, aur us daulatĕ kaṣīr aur māl o asbāb-ke zā'ĕ karne-kā bahut afsos kiyā; dānishmandon-kū yĕh kaul ki "muflisī-se mar-jānā bĕhtar hai" yād-kartā, aur usko apne hasbĕ hāl pātā, aur mere bāp-kā bhī yĕhī kaul thā. Ākhiru 'lamr mīrāṣ-kā bachā bachāyā jo merī fazūl-kharchiyon-se bākī rah-gayā thā, sab jam'-karke bechā, aur tājirānĕ baḥrī-se apne bāb-men mashwara kiyā; unhon-ne muh-ko achchhī ṣalāḥ batlā'ī; main-ne us rūpai-ko tijārat-men lagā-diyā, aur tijārat-kā asbāb kharīd-kar, un tājiron-ke ham-rāh bandar bānsrā-ko gayā, aur wahān-se, ba-ittifāk un sab-ke, jahūz kirāya-kar-ke sawār hū'ā.

#### TRANSLATION.

### Sindbad the Sailor's First Voyage.

Sindbad said: Whatever wealth and property I inherited from my father's estate, I spent all in debauchery in the season of youth; and then, perceiving my folly and stupidity, became extremely ashamed and sorry, and much regretted having squandered that vast wealth and property; I used to call to mind the saying of the wise, Death is better than poverty,' and to find it in accordance with my predicament; this saying moreover was my father's also. Ultimately, collecting all the remnants of my inheritance, which had escaped my extravagances, I sold (them), and consulted some merchants (lit. scatraders) respecting myself; they gave me good counsel: I invested that money in commerce, and purchasing trading commodities, accompanied those merchants to the sea-port of Baṣrā, and thence, conjointly with them all, hired a ship, and embarked.

## PART II.-ETYMOLOGY.

### CHAPTER II.

### THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

1°. The Substantive (اِسْمِ مَوصُوف ismě mausūf, or simply ism, 'the noun which is described or qualified').

2° The Adjective (السَّمِ صِفْت ismě sifat, 'the noun indicating a quality').

3°. The Numerical Adjective (المر عدد ismě 'adad, 'the noun of number').

4°. The Personal Pronoun (منبير zamīr, 'the noun that is kept in mind').

5° The Demonstrative Pronoun (الشر الشارة ismë ishūra, 'the noun of indication, or by which something is pointed out').

6° The Relative Pronoun [اسم مَوصُول isme mausūl, 'the noun that is connected' (with a relative clause)],

7° The Interrogative Pronoun (اَسْمِ السَّقْهَامُ ismě istifhām, 'the noun that seeks information,' or 'the noun of questioning').

8°. The Indefinite Pronoun (اسّم مُنبُم isme mubham, 'the indeterminate or indefinite noun').

9° The Infinitive, or Verbal Noun ( masdar, 'the source whence the different forms of the verb originate').

10° The Deverbal Nouns, as the Noun of Agency (السّم فاعِل isme fā'il), the Perfect, or Passive Participle (السّم مغَّول or ماضِي mūṣī, or isme maf'ūl), and the Imperfect Participle (السّم حالية isme hūliya, 'the noun of state or circumstance' of the subject or object).

Under the term Particles are comprised—1° Adverbs; 1 2° Prepositions ( جُرُفِ جَرُ أَبُ جَرُ hurūfĕ jarr, ' particles of attraction'); 3° Conjunctions ( حُرُفِ عَظْف hurūfĕ 'atf, ' conjunctive particles,' or حُرُفِ شَرَط hurūfĕ shart, ' conditional particles,' etc.); 4° Interjections ( عُرُفِ نِدا hurūfĕ nidā, ' particles of calling').

### I. THE ARTICLE.

23. It will be perceived from the above classification that the Article finds no place among the parts of speech in Urdū. The context alone can determine whether a noun is definite or indefinite. The force of the definite article is, however, often conveyed by the demonstrative pronouns with this, and with that, and that of the

There is no special name for an adverb in Urdū; it is termed تميز tamīz, 'the specification,' خلوف zarf, 'the vessel, or that in which the act is done,' or نفيي nafī, 'the particle of negation,' according to the sense in which it is used.

indefinite article by the numeral ایک ek, 'one,' or by the indefinite pronoun این ko'ī, 'some.' A fuller notice of this will be found in the Syntax.

# II. THE SUBSTANTIVE (إِسْم). 1. Gender (جنّس jins).

24. In respect of gender, Urdū nouns are divisible into two classes: 1) those which are masculine (گُنْهُ muzakkar); 2) those which are feminine (شُونْتُ mu'annas).

Rem. Most nouns are masculine or feminine merely by usage (مماعي samā'ī); the gender of a large number, however, is based on rule (فَعَالِمِي kiyāsī): it is with these chiefly that we have to deal

- 25. That a noun is of the masculine or feminine gender may be ascertained either: 1) from its signification; or 2) from its form.
- 26. All common nouns and proper names that denote males are masculine by signification, and those that denote females are feminine: e.g. شَوْهِ bāp, 'father,' مُثَوْهِ bāp, 'father,' مُثَوْهِ shauhar, 'husband,' لوهار bohār, 'blacksmith,' موهى Mohan, are masculine; and مال مشق، 'mother,' أحرر أو chhochho, 'nurse,' مُثُو عُهُ chhochho, 'nurse,' عَبُو عِهُ عَبُو هُمُ عَبُو هُمُ عَبُو عَبُو هُمُ عَبُو هُمُ اللهُ عَبُو هُمُ عَبُو هُمُ اللهُ عَبُو هُمُ عَبُولُهُ عَبْرُ عَا عَبْرُ عَبْرُ عَبْرُ عَبْرُ عَبْرُ عَبْرُعُ عَبْرُعُ عَبْرُعُ عَبْرُ عَبْرُعُ عَبْرُ عَبْرُ عَبْرُ عَبْرُ عَبْرُ عَبْرُ عَبْرُ

Rem. There is one exception even to this rule. The word قبيله kabīla, 'family,' 'tribe,' is used euphemistically to signify wife, and treated as a masculine; and the masculine terms خاندان khāndān, 'family,' خاندان gharāna, 'household,' گورانه ghar ke ādmiyān, 'people of the house,' are still more commonly used in the sense of 'wife.'

27. Masculine by form are:

1). Hindī nouns ending in اَ عَرِيًّا أَمْ بَا عَلَى اَ مَا اَلَهُ اَلَهُ اَ اَلَهُ اَ اَلَهُ اَ اَ اَلْهُ اَ الْهُ اِلْهُ الْهُ اللَّهُ اللَّا اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللّل

2). Nouns ending in  $\hat{u}$  or o, and especially those ending in  $\bar{u}$  or e.g.  $\hat{j}$   $\bar{u}l\bar{u}$ , 'potato,'  $\hat{j}$   $\hat{u}ll\bar{u}$ , 'owl,'  $\hat{j}$   $\hat{u}$   $\hat{u}$ 

Rem. Hindī and Arabic words furnish a few exceptions, as بالو bālū, 'sand,' وهُو rohū, 'a kind of fish,' وهُو nā'o, 'a boat,' وهُو hajo, 'satire,' and perhaps one or two more. The chief exceptions are Persian words, as ابرو abrū, 'eyebrow,' آبرو ābrū, 'honour,' آبرو ārzū, 'wish,' وهُو bū or bo, 'smell,' ترازو tarāzū, 'a pair of scales,' مُلَّاتِهُ dārū, 'medicine,' جو jo, 'a stream,' خو kho, 'habit,' and a few more.

3). Nouns ending in s = a: e.g. بنّده banda, 'a slave,' وقد parda, 'a curtain,' غُصّه guṣṣa, 'anger,' پرّده ķiṣṣa, 'a tale.'

Rem. a. بنغْشه banafsha, 'a violet,' توبه tauba, 'repentance,' دفّعه dafa, 'time,' 'a class,' صرفه ṣarfa, 'expenditure,' والمُعْبَد fā<u>kh</u>ta, 'a

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> I use the term *Hindī* advisedly; for Sanskrit, not having been a spoken language when Urdū sprung into existence, could only have furnished words to it through the Hindī.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Words like mansā, dayā, jachā, kirpā, sobhā, etc., belong, not to Urdū, but to Hindī. Such words were commonly used by the older writers, but are rarely found in modern authors; and even the older writers generally used them under peculiar circumstances, just as an English novelist, the scene of whose novel is laid in Cornwall, for example, might introduce something of the Cornish dialect into his work.

dove,' الشه lāsha, 'a corpse,' and a few more, are exceptions; as are also all such Arabic nouns as have s affixed to the masculine to form the feminine, الده malika, 'queen,' from الده malik, 'king,' والده wālida, 'mother,' from والده wālida, 'father.'

Rem. b. Final s (masculine) is frequently changed into \, and vice versa: e.g. راجه rāja, for اگرا rājā, 'a king;' عراجه آگرا āgra, for گرا Agra.'

- 4). All nouns terminating in the syllable بن pan: e.g. pan: e.g. الله المالية إلى المالية الم
- 5). Arabic verbal nouns of the measure الْخَالِ if al, in which the two alifs (the first and fourth letters) are servile and constant: e.g. إِنَّهَالِ 'ĕhsān, 'a kindness,' إِنَّهَالِ 'ikbāl, 'good fortune,' إِنَّهَالِ 'ikrār, 'avowal,' إِنَّهَالِ inkār, 'denial.'

6). Arabic verbal nouns of the measure تَفَعُّل tafa"ul, in which the first letter (ت t) is servile and characteristic, and the third is marked with tashdīd: e.g. تردُّد taraddud, 'vacillation,' تكبُّر takabbur, 'haughtiness.'

Rem. The exceptions are تُوخُنُو tawajjuh, 'regard,' تُوخُنُو tawazzū, 'performing ablution before prayer,' تُمنَّا tawakku', 'expectation,' نَصْلَة tamannā, 'wish,' and all nouns ending in جي tasallī, 'consolation,' تَصَلَّق tarakkī, 'advancement.'

7). Arabic verbal nouns of the measure تَفَاعُل tafā'ul, in which the first and third letters are servile and constant:

e.g. تفارُت tadūruk, 'calling to account,' تفارُت tafāwut, 'difference.'

Rem. تواضّع tawāzu', 'civility,' is an exception; so also are all nouns ending in ج بي , as مُعاشِي taḥāshī, 'exception.'

- 8). All Arabic verbal nouns of the measure إِنْفِعَالِ inftal, in which the first, second, and fifth letters are servile and constant: e.g. اِنْصَال 'insirām, 'ending,' 'ceasing,' اِنْفِصَال 'infiṣāl, 'decision.'
- 9). Arabic verbal nouns of the measure آنِتِعَال iftiāl, in which the first, third, and fifth letters are servile and constant: e.g. اِلْتِمَاس ikhtiṣār, 'abridgment,' اِلْتِمَاس 'petition.'

10). Arabic verbal nouns of the measure اِنْسِیْعَال istif'āl, in which the first three letters are servile and characteristic, and the sixth letter also is servile: e.g. اِنْسِیْغَار istigfār, 'begging forgiveness,' اِنْسِیْمَال istigfār, 'use.'

Rem. The exceptions are اَسْتِكُرَاهُ 'istě'dād, 'capacity,' اَسْتِكُراهُ 'istikrāh, 'aversion,' اِسْتِكْداك 'istimdād, 'begging help,' اِسْتِدْداك istid'ā, 'supplication,' اِسْتِرْضا 'istirzā, 'seeking to please.'

11). Arabic nouns of place and time of the measures مَعْعَل maf'al and مَعْعَل maf'il, in which the first letter is characteristic: e.g. مَصْد masdar, 'the source' (of any thing), مَثْن maskan, 'habitation,' مِثْن maskan مِثْل maskan, 'habitation,'

makān, 'halting, or dwelling place,' مشرق mashrik, 'rising place' (of the sun), مغرب magrib, 'setting place' (of the sun).

Rem. The principal exceptions are: معال majāl, 'scope,' 'power,' mahshar, 'a place of gathering,' mahshar, 'royal presence,' mahfil, 'a place of meeting,' majlis, 'a place of sitting,' masjid, 'a mosque,' منزل "masjid, 'a halting place.'

12). Arabic nomina instrumenti of the measure مغفل mif'al, in which the first letter is characteristic, e.g. منبر mimbar, 'a pulpit,' مِثْنِر miskal, 'a furbishing instrument.'

Rem. , in nostril, is perhaps the only exception.

### 28. Feminine by form are:

1). Arabic nouns ending in  $\bar{a}$ : e.g. بنا  $bak\bar{a}$ , 'duration,' لبا  $bal\bar{a}$ , 'cvil'; and all Hindī diminutives ending in  $\bar{u} = iy\bar{a}$ , as خِرِیا  $chiry\bar{a}$ , 'a bird,' پُرِیا  $phuriy\bar{a}$ , 'a pimple.'

*Rem.* Not a few Arabic nouns ending in  $\bar{a}$  are masculine, but those that are feminine are far more numerous.

2). Arabic nouns ending in ت t: e.g. الْفَت ulfat, 'familiarity,' عِزْت 'izzat, 'honour;' as also Persian abstract nouns formed by dropping the final ن of the Infinitive: e.g. وقت raft (from وقت fraget (from وقت fraget), 'speaking.'

Rem. The exceptions in the first case are very few: e.g. يَّوُوت subūt, 'confirmation,' مَرْبِت sharbat, 'a drink,' ويَّ wakt, 'time,' خِلَعت 'sharbat, 'a robe of honour,' يَاتُوت yākūt, 'a ruby,' and perhaps a few more. The rule does not apply to Hindī nouns, nor indeed to any other Persian nouns than the class mentioned.

3). All nouns terminating in the syllable at or

يارت , wat, preceded by the long vowel ā: e.g. گيراهت , ghabrāhat, 'perturbation,' ناوت banāwat, 'invention,' 'fabrication.'

Rem. The affixes  $\tilde{a}hat$  and  $\tilde{a}wat$  help to form a large class of abstract substantives. In the Dakhini dialect these affixes take the form  $\tilde{a}t$ :
e.g.  $\tilde{a}hat$  ghabrāt.

4). Persian nouns (chiefly, if not all, abstract substantives) ending in the syllable فانِش ish; as مانِش  $d\bar{a}nish$ , 'wisdom,' نالِش  $n\bar{a}lish$ , 'complaint.'

Rem. بالِش  $b\bar{a}lish$ , 'a pillow,' is perhaps the solitary exception. It may here be observed that sh, simply, is not a feminine termination in Urdū.

5) Nouns ending in جي i: e.g. روتِي roṭī, 'bread,' مراتِي surāliī, 'a gugglet,' هِذِي haḍḍtī, 'a bone.'

Rem. پاني pānī, 'water,' جي jī, 'life,' دهي dahī, 'curdled milk,' ghī, 'clarified butter,' موتي molī, 'a pearl,' هن hāthī, 'an clephant,' and a few other words are exceptions.¹ Relative adjectives, as خزائجي dhooī, 'a washerman,' خزائجي khazānchī, 'a treasurer,' are of course masculine by signification.

### 6). Abstract nouns formed by dropping the characteristic

<sup>1</sup> These words are masculine or neuter in Sanskrit, and, as a general rule, such words are masculine in Hindī. There are numerous exceptions though:  $eg.\bar{a}g$ , 'fire,'  $t\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ , 'star,'  $bh\bar{a}ph$ , 'steam,' 'vapour' (=S.  $v\bar{a}shpa$ , m.), deh, 'the body,' etc. Mr. Dowson, however (Urdū Grammar, p. 22), writes as though the rule were of universal application, and applied equally to words derived from the Arabic also. He says, "Sanskrit and Arabic scholars should bear in mind that words borrowed from those languages retain their original gender; masculines and neuters being masculine, and feminines remain (sic) feminine in Hindūstānī." We were not aware before of there being a neuter gender in Arabic; and as regards the derivatives from that language we can adduce examples by the score in which Arabic feminines have been changed to masculines in Urdū and vice versā; here are a few:  $af^*a$ , 'viper,' jahannam, 'hell,' khamr, 'wine,' shams, 'the sun,'  $sahr\bar{a}$ , 'desert,' ' $as\bar{a}$ , 'staff,' nafs, 'soul,' etc., not to speak of the long list of verbal nouns in which Urdū changes the feminine termination  $\bar{s}$  of the Arabic into the masculine s-a; as  $muh\bar{a}wara$ , 'idiom.'

syllable ن nā of the Infinitive; e.g. مارنا mār (from الرقة mārnā), 'beating,' الوت 'lūṭ (from الوقة lūṭnā), 'plunder,' الوقة chhāp, 'printing,' 'impression,' جهاب samajh, 'understanding,' القية ragar, 'rubbing,' 'friction.'

Rem. The exceptions are گهکیل 'khel, 'play,' نوچ 'noch, 'scratch,' کهکیل 'noch, 'scratch,' انگی 'noch, 'scratch,' انگی 'nichor, 'extract,' انگی 'nach, 'dance,' نگی 'rang, 'colour,' and a few more.

7). Arabic verbal nouns of the measure تَعْمِيل taf'īl, in which the first and fourth letters are servile and characteristic; e.g. تسكبن targīb, 'exciting desire,' تسكبن taskīn, 'consolation,' تعْمِيل ta'mīl, 'execution' (of an order).

Rem. تغويذ ta'wīz, 'an amulet,' is perhaps the only exception.

- 8). Arabic nomina instrumenti of the measure وفَعَال mif'āl, in which the first and fourth letters are servile and characteristic: e.g. ومِنْكَار mikrāz, 'scissors,' ومِنْكَار minkār, 'a bird's beak,' ومِنْزان mīzān, 'a balance.'
- Rem. a. The exceptions are مِنْشار minshār, 'a hand-saw,' مِنْشار mismār, 'a peg or nail,' مِعْيار mi'yār, 'a touchstone,' 'an assay-balance.'
- Rem. c. The words فِكُر bulbul, أَفِكُر jūn, 'life,' فِكُر fikr, 'thought,' are masculine or feminine, but the latter is generally considered correct in Northern India.
- Rem. d. Generic nouns (اَسُمْ جِنْسُ ismë jins) are either masculine or feminine, and apply equally to both sexes; e.g. المَا يُولِي chīl, 'a kite,' is feminine; هرن haran or hiran, is masculine. In some cases, however, the terminations a, ī are added to such nouns to distinguish the sex: e.g. المَا مَا مَا مَا مَا مُعَالَى harnā, 'a buck,' هَرْنِي harnā, 'a doe.' The word هَرْنِي admī,

'a human being,' though properly a generic noun, and hence applicable to females as well as males, is rarely treated as a feminine by Mohammadans; where a Hindū might say ما موادي عورت achchhī ādmī, 'a good woman,' a Musalmān would say.

29. The gender of compounds is generally determined by the latter part of the compound: e.g. هُمُارُكَاهُ shikār-gāh, 'a hunting-ground,' هُمُرُيناهُ shahr-panāh, 'a wall of defence round a town,' are feminine, because the words عَلَمُ عَلَمُهُ عَلَمُهُ عَلَمُهُ عَلَمُ عَلَمُهُ عَلَمُ عَلَمُ عَلَمُهُ عَلَمُ عَلَمُ

### FORMATION OF FEMININES FROM MASCULINES.

30. The most common termination used to form feminines from masculines is  $\bar{\iota} = \bar{\iota}$ . If the masculine end in a consonant, this termination is merely added to it; as

براهمني brāhman, 'a Brāhman, براهمني brāhmanī, 'a Brāhman woman.' اهيري ahīrī, 'a woman of the Ahīr اهير caste.'

paṭhān, 'a Puṭhān,' ياني paṭhānī, 'a woman of the Paṭhān

If the masculine end in  $\bar{a}$  or a(s-), these terminations are changed into  $\bar{i}$  for the feminine: e.g.

الزّكا الرّكا المرت المحمود المحم

- 31. Other common feminine affixes are j = an or in, in, and  $j = an\bar{i}$ , which are all used in the case of rational beings (chiefly with nouns denoting caste, trade, occupation, etc.), and the last two in the case of irrational animals also. In the application of these the following rules are to be observed:
- 1). If the masculine end in a consonant, the affixes are merely added: e.g.

2). If the masculine end in a long vowel preceded by any consonant except y, the vowel is generally dropped before the affixes are added, and a long  $ma^iruf$  vowel in a monosyllabic masculine noun shortened: e.g.

dulhan, 'a bride.' لَوْلَا dulhā, 'a bridegroom,' barethan, 'a washerwoman.' بريقها bareṭhā, 'a washerman,' 1, sis kunjrā, 'a greengrocer,' .., si kunjran, 'a greengrocer's ر dhobī, 'a washerman,' دهو بي dhobin or dhoban, 'a washerwoman. mālin, 'a gardener's wife. ر الله mālī, 'a gardener,' هاته ما ملك hāthī, 'a male elephant,' مَّتُهُمُ hathnī, 'a female elephant.' khatrīn, 'a man of the Khatrī كيتري khatrānī, 'a Khatrī's wife or daughter.' caste.'

سَمَانِي mumānī, 'a maternal uncle's wife.'

الله mullā, 'a doctor or school- مُلَانِي mullānī, 'a mullā's wife.'

master,'

Rem. In the word  $mum\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$  (for  $mam\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ ) the influence of final  $\bar{u}$  in the masculine is sufficient to change the first vowel from a into u. In some instances final  $\bar{u}$  of the masculine is not dropped in the feminine:

e.g.  $\bar{u}$   $\bar{u}$ 

3). If the termination of the masculine be  $\bar{a}$  preceded by  $y(y, y, \bar{a})$ , or  $\bar{\imath}$  preceded by hamza ( $\bar{\imath}$ , in which case a long vowel precedes),  $\bar{a}$  in the first is not dropped, and in both cases the affix an or in is changed to  $\bar{\imath}$  yan or  $\bar{\imath}$  in: e.g.

بنیا نیک اله baniyā, 'a corn-seller,' لبنیاتی اله baniyā an, 'a baniyā's wife.' و بنیکائِن baniyā'in, 'a baniyā's wife.' الین امترن اله مقاتر المقاتر الم

Rem. The above affixes are all derived from the Sanskrit affix आनी ani, (e.g. दन्हाणो indrāṇī, 'the wife of Indra'). Of the two forms an and in of the first affix, the latter is more commonly used in towns, and by Musalmāns. This affix is also added to Arabic nouns to form the names of women; e.g. اميرا Amīran, نصيبان Naṣīban, which are generally, though incorrectly, written اميرا Naṣīban.

### 32. Other masculines and feminines are:

The first of these is derived, through the Prākrit, from the Sanskrit  $r\bar{a}jn\bar{\imath}$ , by elision of j; the second is taken intact from the Sanskrit, and is perhaps the only example in Urdū of a feminine so formed; the third is derived through the Prākrit from the Sanskrit *bhagin* $\bar{\imath}$ ; the fourth is the regular Arabic feminine of  $\underline{kh}\bar{a}l$ , which is also in use, and of which  $\underline{kh}\bar{a}l\bar{u}$  is probably a corruption; the two last are borrowed (through the Persian) from the Turkish.

33. In many cases distinct words are used for the feminine: e.g.

And the distinction of sex is occasionally indicated, as in Persian, by means of the words نر ماده nar, 'male,' ماده māda, 'female': e.g. شير نر sherĕ nar, or نر شير ماده sherĕ māda, 'a female tiger.'

Rem. The formation of Arabic feminines will be treated separately in the section on Persian and Arabic constructions.

### 2. Nomber (sae 'adad).

- 34. Nouns have two numbers, the singular ((1 + i) + i) = i, wāhid), and the plural ((1 + i) + i). The nominative singular has no case-sign, but is always identical with the crude form of the noun. The formation of the plural depends on the termination and gender of the singular. The following rules may be laid down respecting it.
- 1). Masculines ending in a consonant, or in one of the long vowels  $\vec{-}$   $\bar{u}$  or o,  $\vec{-}$   $\bar{i}$ , as also a few Hindī masculines ending in  $\vec{-}$   $\bar{a}$ , that are proper names, or nouns denoting relationship, titles, professions, etc., and Persian and

Arabic words with the same termination, remain unchanged in the nominative plural: e.g.

Rem. A few Arabic words ending in ā are exceptions: e g. ماجرا mājarā, which is treated like Hindī masculines ending in ā, and has for its nom. plural ماجري mājarē.

- 2). Masculines ending in  $i \in \bar{a}$  (with the exceptions noticed above), or  $s \in a$  (which is interchangeable with  $\bar{a}$ ), form the nominative plural by changing  $\bar{a}$ , or a, into  $\underline{c} = e \cdot g$ .  $e \cdot g \cdot \underline{c} = a \cdot \underline{c} \cdot \underline{c}$
- Rem. a. One Hindī noun of relationship, namely,  $d\bar{a}d\bar{a}$ , a paternal grandfather, and a few Arabic nouns; as  $d\bar{a}d\bar{a}$ , mājarā, 'state,' 'incident,' also come under this rule. And as regards nouns ending in  $s \geq a$ , it may be observed that the custom now appears to be to retain the final h in writing, but to pronounce it like e: e.g. (pronounced parde) 'curtains.'

Rem. b. The plural termination e corresponds to the plural termination e of the Prākrit, vide Lassen's Instit. Ling. Prāk. p. 430.

3). Feminines ending in  $= \bar{i}$  form the nominative plural by adding  $= \bar{a}n$  to the singular, the fatha of the

affix changing the letter of prolongation  $\omega$  into the consonant y: e.g.

*Rem.* The termination  $\tilde{a}\dot{n}$  corresponds to the Präkrit plural increment o, which is changed to  $\tilde{a}$  and nasalized.

4). Feminines ending in any letter except  $\sqrt{i}$  form the nominative plural by adding the termination -i to the singular; as

If the singular end in one of the long vowels  $1 - \bar{a}$ ,  $-\bar{u}$  or o, hamza is employed to enounce the initial vowel of the termination: e.g.

If, however, the singular end in s - a, or s - c, these terminations are dropped before the plural affix is added: e.g.

Rem. a. The word  $jor\bar{u}$  has for its plural  $jor\bar{u}'a\bar{n}$  as well as the regular  $jor\bar{u}'e\bar{n}$ ; and a few other words ending in  $\bar{u}$  or o perhaps never occur in the plural: e.g.  $b\bar{u}l\bar{u}$ , 'sand,'  $b\bar{u}l\bar{u}$ , 'a street,'  $b\bar{u}l\bar{u}$ , 'a constant  $b\bar{u}l\bar{u}$ , 'a street,'  $b\bar{u}l\bar{u}$ , 'a pair of scales.' As exceptions to the rule we may note the class of

feminine diminutives which end in الم يَاتِيُّ burhiya, 'an old woman,' الم يُلِّهِمِيًّا burhiya, 'an old woman,' الم الم phuriya, 'a pimple;' these take the plural forms of the feminines from which they are derived: e.g. burhiyan (= pl. of  $burh\bar{\imath}$ ).

Rem. b. The plural affix  $e\dot{n}$ , like the preceding affix  $a\dot{n}$ , corresponds to the Prākrit affix o, which is frequently changed to e in the Prākrit dialects.

Rem. c. Dissyllables with a short vowel in the first syllable, and fatha (a) in the second, generally drop the fatha when, in the course of inflection or derivation, a syllable is added beginning with a vowel:
e.g. jaghen, plural of jagah, 'a place.'

# 3. Declension (تضريف taṣrīf, or گردار gardān).

- 35. Strictly speaking there is no such thing as declension in Urdū; the cases are formed by means of certain adverbs (called خُرُف معنوي hurūfě maˈnawī, 'significant particles,' by the native grammarians), which are placed after the noun, and hence termed postpositions.
- 36. The cases ( hālāt), as generally given in Hindūstānī grammars, are eight in number; namely, the Nominative, Agent, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, Ablative, Locative, and Vocative. In reality, however, there are but two cases; viz. the crude form or Nominative, and the oblique form, or that to which the postpositions are added, and which Dr. Caldwell happily terms the Formative.

Rem. Most Urdū grammarians, ignoring all grammatical forms save those of the Arabic and Persian, recognise but three cases; viz. the Nominative and Agent (حالت فاعِلْي hālatě fā'ilī, or فاعِل أَنْ أَمُ فَاعِلُ مِنْ أَنْ أَمُ اللّٰهِ اللّٰهُ اللّٰهِ اللّٰهِ اللّٰهِ اللّٰهِ اللّٰهِ اللّٰهِ اللّٰهِ اللّٰهِ اللّٰهُ اللّٰمُ اللّٰهُ اللّٰمِ اللّٰهُ اللّٰهُ اللّٰهُ اللّٰهُ اللّٰهُ اللّٰمُ اللّٰهُ الللّٰهُ اللّٰهُ الللّٰهُ اللّٰهُ اللّٰهُ

lative and Locative they term جَرُور و جار majrūr o jārr, 'the attracted and the attracting' (i.e. the object attracted and the preposition attracting it); and the Vocative they call نِدا و مُناديل nidā o munādā, 'the calling and the called.'

37. The postpositions which are used in lieu of case-endings are:

ين ne, 'by,' for the Agent, sing. and plural.

الله ka, 'of,' etc. ,, Genitive, ,,

اله ko, 'to,' 'for,' ,, Dative, ,,

عدر se, 'from,' 'with,' 'by,' ,, Ablative, ,,

سر or مدر emen, par or pa, 'in,' 'on,' ,, Locative ,,

38. The singular nominative, as we have already observed, has no postposition added to it, but is always identical with the crude form of the noun.

The postposition of the agent case is derived from the affix  $na^1$  of the Sanskrit instrumental case (singular), to which it was no doubt at first understood to correspond in use and signification; but according to the conception of those who now employ it, it is nothing more than a mere sign to distinguish the subject or agent of a transitive verb in the tenses formed with the passive participle (§§ 183, 188).

The genitive case is simply an adjective, formed by means of an adjective affix (see § 42).

The accusative case, strictly speaking, does not exist in Hindī and Urdū; its place is supplied by the nominative (which we shall call *the direct object*), or by the dative, in which case the postposition *ko* is not to be translated into English.

The vocative case takes no postposition but a variety of interjections may be prefixed to it.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> For the derivation of the other postpositions see the section on Prepositions and Postpositions.

- Rem. a. The force of the dative is occasionally expressed by the postpositions تثين ta'īn, 'to,' and المنظ المنظ
- Rem. b. Two postpositions (generally those of the ablative and locative cases) are frequently used together: e.g. گهر صين سي ghar-men-se, 'from within the house,' يَسُلُ بِرُ سِي 'bail-par-se, 'from upon the ox.' In such cases the first is regarded by some of the native grammarians as a noun governing the preceding noun in the genitive.
- 39. The form assumed by a noun before it takes a post-position after it (whether that postposition be expressed or understood) is generally termed the *oblique form*. We prefer calling it, with Dr. Caldwell, the *Formative*. In constructing the Formative the following cases arise:
- 1). If the nominative singular end in any letter except the masculine terminations  $1 \leq \bar{a}$  and  $s \leq a$  (§ 33, 2), the Formative singular is identical with the nominative, and the Formative plural is obtained by adding the termination 0 = 0 on to the singular: e.g. nom. sing. ghar, 'a house,' Formative singular  $0 \leq 0$  ghar, Formative plural  $0 \leq 0$  gharon. In the vocative plural the nasal  $0 \leq 0$  of the termination on is dropped, e.g.  $0 \leq 0$  gharo, 'O houses.'

- 2). If the nom. sing. end in  $1 \le \bar{a}$  or  $s \le a$  (§ 33, 2), the Formatives are obtained by changing these letters into e on for the plural: e.g. nom. sing. If e on for the plural: e.g. nom. sing. e on e on for the plural: e.g. nom. sing. e on e on for the plural: e.g. e on e on for the plural: e.g. e on e on for the plural: e.g. e on e
- Rem. a. According to some native grammarians no proper name should be inflected; hence we find in the Kawā'idĕ Urdā, Part III., جمنا کے کہنے سے وُہ دریا سمجها جائیگا جو دِمّلي متّبرا آگرہ کے نِیچے بیتا کی مناک کہنے سے وُہ دریا سمجها جائیگا جو بمناک کہنے سے وُہ دریا سمجها جائیگا جو بمناک کہنے سے وَہ دریا سمجها جائیگا جو بمناک کہنے سے وَہ دریا سمجها جائیگا جو بمناک کے نیچے عضا کے کہنے سے وَہ دریا سمجها جائیگا جو بمناک کے نیچے عضا کے کہنے سے وَہ دریا سمجها جائیگا جو بمناک کے نیچے عضا کے کہنے سے وَہ دریا سمجها جائیگا جو بمناک کے نیچے عضا کے کہنے مناک کے نیچے عضا کے کہنے سے وَہ دریا سمجها کے نیچے عضا کے کہنے سے وَہ دریا سمجها کے نیچے کی استحمال کے کہنے کے نیچے کے نیچے کے نیچے کہنے کے کہنے کے نیچے کے نیچے کے نیچے کی استحمال کے نیچے کے نیچے کی استحمال کے نیچے کہنے کے نیچے کی نیچے کے نی
- Rem. b. The Formative is originally, as Dr. Trumpp suggests (Sindhī Gram. p. 123), the Prākrit Genitive. This is not very clear in the singular, but the termination on of the Formative plural is evidently the termination ana or una of the Prākrit genitive plural, and in the case of the pronouns the identity is unmistakeable.
- 40. All nouns then may be arranged in two classes or declensions, corresponding to the two forms of the Formative.

### THE FIRST DECLENSION.

41. The first declension comprises all feminines, and masculines terminating in any letter except (original) s = a; those ending in  $1 = \bar{a}$ , however, are Persian or Arabic words, or Hindī nouns of relationship, etc. (§ 33, 1); e.g.

# 1). A ghar, 'a house' (masc.).

PLURAL. ghar, 'houses.' ghar, 'a house.' Nom. gharon. گهرون Formative & ghar. Agent. گبر نے ghar-ne, 'by a house.' گبر نے gharon-ne, 'by houses.' ghar-kā, 'of a house.' کجروں کا ghar-kā, 'of houses.' Dat. وهي كو ghar-ko, 'to a house.' عن والله عن gharon-ko, 'to houses.' ghar, کهر ghar, از ghar گهر په ghar کهر په ghar کهر په ghar که وارک که وارک که په وارک که په وارک که وارک که وارک که په وارک که وارک ي جي ghar-se, 'from, with, عربي على ghar-se, 'from houses.' Abl.

by, a house.' یر یا یا ghar-men, -par, 'in, گیروں میں یا ghar-men, 'in houses.' on, a house.'

Voc. أي گيرو ai ghar, 'O house.' أي گيرو ai gharo, 'O houses.'

## 2). La chachā, 'a paternal uncle.'

Nom. (\$\$\frac{1}{2}\$ chachā, 'an uncle.' \\$\$\frac{1}{2}\$ chachā, 'uncles.'

chachā'on.

Form. \s chachā.

Agent \_ chachā-ne, 'by an uncle.' \_ chachā'on ne, 'by uncles.' Gen. لا ين من chachā kā, 'of an uncle.' لا بن من chachā'on kā, 'of uncles.' etc. etc. etc.

Rem. Like chachā are declined such Hindī nouns as , rājā, 'a king,' W lālā, 'a master,' as also Fersian and Arabic nouns (masc.); e.g. دريا daryā, 'a river,' استريا şaḥrā, 'a desert.'

## 3.) موتى *motī*, 'a pearl' (masc.).

Nom. موتبي motī, 'a pearl.' . motī, 'pearls.' motiyon or moti'on. Form. موتى motī. Gen. موتي كا "motī-kā, 'of pearls.' موتي كا "motī-kā, 'of pearls.'

# 4). غنو bichchhū, 'a scorpion' (masc.).

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.			
Nom. bichchhū, 'a scor-	bichchhū, 'scorpions.'			
pion.'	-			
Form. bichchhū.	bichchhū'on.			
Agent	bichchhū'on-ne, 'by scor-			
scorpion.	pions.'			

## 5). ات , rāt, 'night' (fem.).

Nom. رات rāt, 'night.'	rāten, 'nights.'			
Form. ات rāt.	rāton.			
Gen. ات کا rāt-kā, 'of night.' etc. etc.	اتوں کا rāton-kā, 'of nights.' etc. etc. etc.			

## 6). So dawā, 'medicine' (fem.).

Nom ! dawā, 'medicine.'	dawā'en, 'medicines.'			
Form. 1,3 dawā.	dawa'on.			
Agent فراني dawā-ne, 'by the medicine.' etc. etc. etc.	وراؤں نے dawā'on-ne, 'by medicines.' etc. etc. etc.			

7). 
$$\dot{bo}$$
 or  $b\bar{u}$ , 'smell' (fem.).

SINGULAR.

Nom. , bo or bū, 'smell.' Form. ب bo or bū.

يوئي bo'en or bū'en, 'smella.' bū'on.

Rem. The few feminines ending in e and a ( $s \leq$ ) not only drop those letters in the nominative plural, but also in the Formative plural: e.g.  $g \tilde{a}' o n$ , from قَائِم  $g \tilde{a}' e$ , 'a cow;' فاخَّتو  $f \tilde{a} \underline{k} h t o n$ , from فاخَّته fākhta, 'a dove.'

Nom. لَوْكِيَال laṛkiyān, 'a girl.' لَوْكِيَال laṛkiyān, 'girls.' Form. لَوْكِي laṛkiyon or laṛki' larkiyon or larkī'on.

Rem. a. Feminine diminutives, such as Lize chiriya, 'a bird,' Lize phuriyā, 'a small boil,' drop the final  $\bar{a}$  in the Formative plural (as in the plur. nom ), and so have the same plural forms as feminines ending in ī: e.g. nom. pl. چڙيوں chiriyān, 'birds,' Form. pl. چڙيا

Rem. b. A noun terminating in nasal n is declined in the singular just as if the nasal were not present, but the nasal is dropped in the plural.

### THE SECOND DECLENSION.

42. The second declension comprises all masculine (Hindī) nouns ending in 1 $\stackrel{.}{-}$   $ar{a}$  (except such as denote rclationship, titles, professions, etc.) and all masculines ending, in  $s \leftarrow a$ : e.g.

1). لا الله المادية larkā, 'a boy.'

الرَّبِّ larkā, 'a boy.' Larke, 'boys.' Form. Sil larke. larkon. التَّكون نے larkon-ne, 'by boys.' Agent Larke-ne, by a boy.' Voc. { کِنَّا الْآکِا larke, 'boy!' کِنَا الْآکِا الْآکِا الْآکِا أَنْ الْآکِا الْآکِا الْآکِا الْآکِا الْآکِا !'! larko, 'boys الرُّكو النزكو المجتمع النزكو المجتمع النزكو أعدا النزكو أعدا المجتمع المجتمع

# 2). پرّی parda. 'a curtain.'

PLURAL.

Nom. پرت پرت parda, 'a curtain.' پرت parde, 'curtains.'

Form. پرت pardon.

Rem. a. According to the present custom of writing such words as end in  $s \leftarrow a$ , the Formative singular is identical, in writing, with the nominative: e.g.  $s_a$ , pronounced pards.

Rem. b. A few masc. Arabic nouns also, as أجرا mājarā, 'incident,' 'circumstance,' نشا nashā, 'intoxication,' belong to this declension.

Rem. c. Nasal n at the end of words is retained in the singular, as also in the nominative plural, but dropped in the Formative plural: e.g. nom. sing. بنِين baniyān, 'a merchant,' Form. sing. بنِين baniyen, nom. pl. بنِين baniyen, Form. pl. بنِين baniyen, Form. pl. بنِين

Rem. d. Words ending in غي ya, as غيالي  $p\bar{a}ya$ , 'the foot or leg' (of a thing), خرايه  $kir\bar{a}ya$ , 'hire,' 'rent,' may follow the general rule, or change y into hamza in the Form. sing.: e.g. پائيس  $p\bar{a}ye$  or پائيس  $p\bar{a}ye$ , خرايس  $p\bar{a}ye$  or  $p\bar{a}ye$ , خرايس  $p\bar{a}ye$ , خرايس  $p\bar{a}ye$  or  $p\bar{a}ye$ ,  $p\bar{a}ye$  or  $p\bar{a}ye$ . It is a mistake to derive these forms from  $p\bar{a}ye$ ,  $p\bar{a}ye$ ,  $p\bar{a}ye$ ,  $p\bar{a}ye$ , and call them irregular.

# THE GENITIVE (مُضاف إليه ).

43. The Genitive, as has been remarked before, is formed by means of an adjective affix ( $\[mathbb{k}a\]$  = Prākrit  $\[mathbb{a}\]$  ko = Sanskrit  $\[mathbb{a}\]$  ka), and is a real adjective, changing its termination so as to agree with its governing noun (the  $\[mathbb{k}a\]$ ), just as the Hindī adjective ending in  $\[mathbb{a}\]$  does.

Rem. The Persian genitive construction is also used in Urdū, and it is a noteworthy fact that the relation of the governed to the governing

noun is expressed in the same manner as that of a noun to the adjective qualifying it (see *Persian Constructions*, § 76).

# III. THE ADJECTIVE (سم صِفْت).

- 44. The adjective generally precedes the noun it qualifies, and, unless it end in  $1 \leftarrow \bar{a}$ , and be derived from the Hindī, is indeclinable: e.g. سفید گهوڙي safed ghorā, 'a white horse;' سفید گهوڙي safed ghorē, 'a white mare;' سفید گهوڙي safed ghorē, 'white horses.'
- 45. Adjectives (not Persian or Arabie) which end in  $1 = \bar{a}$  (the mase termination), are declined in the singular like nouns of the Second Declension, and form the nompl. in the same way; but the Formative pl. is identical with that of the singular. The feminine is formed by changing the termination  $1 = \bar{a}$ , of the mase into  $1 = \bar{a}$ , and is not altered for case or number: e.g.

The genitive is similarly declined: e.g.

SINGULAR.

Nom. کی گر گی ghar-kā, 'of the house,'

'household.'

Form. کی گیر کی ghar-kī.

PLURAL.

Nom. کی گیر گی ghar-kē.

Phural.

Form. کی گیر گی ghar-kī.

پی ghar-kī.

پی ghar-kī.

Examples: اچنا آذري اعداد المدالة الم

Rem. a. One Persian adjective ending in الم ألك عند judā, 'separate,' and one Arabic, فَلان fulānā (for فُلانه), 'certain,' are similarly declined.

Rem. b. If a masculine noun is qualified by several adjectives capable of inflection, they are all declined in the same way: e.g. برتي كالے bare kāle ghore, 'large black horses.' And if the adjective be a compound word, the latter part of which is itself an adjective or participle determining a preceding substantive, this last is declined so as to agree with the noun qualified by the compound adjective: e.g. topī phate larke, 'the boys with torn caps' (lit. 'the cap-torn boys'), عنوان المعالمة المعالمعالمة المعالمة المعالمة المعالمة المعالمة المعالمة المعالمة الم

Rem. c. If final ā of an adjective be nasalized, the nasal does not affect its declension, but is retained in all the cases: e.g. بایال ها ته bāyān Rāth, 'the left hand,' بائیس ها ته bāyēn (or bāʾen) hāth-ko, 'to the left hand,' بائیس طرف 'bā'īn ṭaraf, 'the left side.'

Rem. d. The adjective occasionally follows the noun it qualifies. This is especially the case if the attribute is to be emphasized or brought prominently to notice. In the older writings, moreover, femi-

nine adjectives following the nouns they qualify sometimes take the plural termination of substantives; as راتين بياريال rāten bhāriyān, 'heavy or wearisome nights;' كونقريال بهت أُونچيال kothriyān bahut unchiyān, 'very lofty rooms;' but this construction is now obsolete.

46. A few Persian adjectives ending in غـ a are declined like Hindī adjectives ending in ā; but as a rule such adjectives are indeclinable. The following are the most important of those that inflect: ما المعالية be-chāra, 'helpless,' 'poor,' المعالية tāza, 'fresh,' حرافزاده harām-zāda, 'base-born,' 'rascally,' المعالية dīwāna, 'mad,' 'insane,' المعالية sharminda, 'ashamed,' 'bashful,' كمينة sharminda, 'ashamed,' 'bashful,' كمينة kamīna, 'mean,' علية ganda, 'fetid,' 'rotten,' علية mānda, 'tired,' 'indisposed,' ناويده nā-dīda, 'unseen,' 'useless.'

Rem. a. To these some grammarians add عَمُدُهُ نُسْطُمُ 'exalted,' فَمُدُهُ عُلُمُهُ مُ سُلِّهُ مُ سُلِّهُ عُلِمُ عُلِمُ

Rem. b. Adjectives, when used as concrete nouns, are declined like nouns: e.g. دانا ورسيد dānā'on-se, 'from the wise.'

### COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

47. Adjectives undergo no change of form to express the comparative and superlative degrees. When two objects are compared, that with which the comparison is made generally takes the form of the ablative, the adjective itself remaining in the positive and following it: e.g. موهن mohan zaid-se barā hai, 'Mohan is bigger than Zaid.' The superlative is, strictly speaking, nothing more than a comparative involving the pronominal adjective

سب sab, 'all,' (prefixed to the ablative, either expressed or understood) as its complement: e.g. موهن سب لبرِّ وي mohan sab larkon-se achchhā hai, 'Mohan is better than (the best of) all the boys;' من سب سے برّا هي wŏh sab-se barā hai, 'he is bigger than (the biggest of) all.'

Rem. a. The particle signifies the difference between two objects that are compared with each other, and hence its use in forming the comparative degree. It is a remarkable fact that this method of forming the comparative and superlative is borrowed from the Semitic languages. The only trace of the Sanskrit method that exists in Urdū is found in the forms borrowed from the Persian, as běh, 'good,' běh-tar, 'better,' běh-tar, 'better,' běh-tar, 'better,' běh-tar, 'better,' běh-tar, 'better,'

Rem. b. Instead of the ablative, however, we occasionally meet with the genitive or the locative; as موهن سب کا برا هي mohan sab-kā barā hai, 'Mohan is biggest of all;' عند اچها هي sab tālib-'ilmon men zaid achchhā hai, 'Zaid is the best among all the students.' The comparative is also frequently expressed by using the word بنسبت ba-nisbat, 'in relation to,' 'in comparison with,' with the genitive of the noun with which the comparison is made; as زيد کا ي عناند هي خوان که بُلند ک

48. An intensive signification is given to an adjective, in either the positive or comparative degree: 1) by repeating it; as اجْهَا اجْهَا الْجَهَا الْحَامِ الْحَامِ الْحَامِ الْحَامِ الْحَامِ الْحَامِ الْحَامِ الْحَامِ الْحَامِ الْحَمَامِ الْحَامِ الْح

نهایت فی اچها bahut-hī achehhā, 'exceedingly good'); اور کالا 'nihāyat khūb-sūrat, 'extremely handsome; آور کالا 'aur kālā, 'more black,' and آور بهي کالا aur bhī kālā, 'even, or still, blacker; وياده حسين 'ziyāda hasīn, 'more beautiful,' or 'exceedingly beautiful;' برجه بهتر ba-darjahā běhtar, 'by degrees, or many degrees, better,' 'far better;' 'by degrees, or many degrees, better,' 'ever so much, or incomparably, better:' 3) by adding to the adjective the termination له عقب له kālā-sā, 'very black,' or 'blackish,' به bahut-sā, 'a large quantity,' 'very much'; نهوتا سا thorā-sā, 'just a little,' 'a very little.'

- 50. Whether the adjunct نے be employed as an intensive, or as an adjective of similitude, it is declinable like Hindī adjectives ending in  $1 \leftarrow \bar{a}$ , and the noun to which it is added inflects just as it would do without it: e.g. کالیے سے گھوڑیاں bahut-se ghore, 'a great many horses;' کالیے سے گھوڑیاں bahut-se ghoriyān, 'very black (or blackish) mares.'

Rem. Lu sā or who sān, 'like,' 'resembling,' is most probably the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The use of  $s\bar{a}$  after the genitive appears to have perplexed the grammarians greatly. The matter belongs properly to Syntax; but we may observe here, that the construction in such cases is precisely similar to that of the English; the  $muz\bar{a}f$ , or noun which governs the genitive, is invariably understood, and it is to this that the adjunct of similitude is attached: e.g. in the phrase  $sher-k\bar{i}-s\bar{i}$   $s\bar{u}rat$ , the word  $s\bar{u}rat$  (to which the adjunct  $s\bar{a}$  pertains) is understood after  $k\bar{i}$ , just as, in the English equivalent, 'a form like a tiger's,' the word 'form' is understood after 'tiger's' (Cf. also § 362).

Prākrit form of the Sanskrit समान like; whereas the intensive particle L is derived from the Sanskrit ग्रस sas, 'fold,' etc.

# IV. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES (السم عدد).

51. The Urdū numerals are the same as those of the Hindī, and are derived from the Sanskrit through the medium of the Prākrit. Like other adjectives they

1 In deriving its words from the Präkrit, the Hindī generally drops final short vowels, clides one or both the letters of conjuncts, and lengthens medial short vowels, especially where a conjunct, or one of the consonants, is clided. Thus we have:—One, Sanskrit eka, Prākrit, ēkka, Hindī ck:—Two, S. dvi, P. do, H. do:—Three, S. tri, P. tinni, H. tīn:—Four, S. chatur, P. chattāvi, H. chār, by clision of the conjunct:—Five, S. paichan, P. paicha, H. pānch:—Six, S. shash, P. chha, H. chha (the cerebral sibilant of the Sanskrit being changed in Prākrit into chh: occasionally this sibilant is changed into h, very commonly into s, as is also the palatal sibilant s of the Sanskrit, since Prākrit has no palatal or cerebral sibilant):—Seven, S. saptan, P. satta, H. sāt:—Eight, S. ashtan, P. aṭtha, H. āṭh:—Nine, S. navan, P. naä, H. nau:—Ten, S. daśan, P. dasa, H. das.

From ten upwards the numbers are formed by prefixing the units to the tens, which, however, previously undergo a change of form: e.g. the Prükrit dasa is changed, first to daha, and then to raha; as Eleven, S. ekūdaśan, P. eūraha, H. igūrah (not eliding the k of the Sanskrit, but changing it into the soft g, and changing the diphthong e into the short vowel i), whence, by transposition of vowel, giūrah, whence gyūrah:—
Twelve, S. drādaśan, P. vūraha, H. būrah:—Thirteen, S. trayodaśan, P. terah, H. terah:—Fourteen, S. chaturdaśan, P. chaūdah, H. chaudah:—Fifteen, S. panchadaśan, P. pannaraha, H. pandrah, for pandarah, by change of conjunct to nd before the liquid r:—Sixteen, S. shodaśan, P. sorah or solah (?), H. sorah or solah:—Seventeen, S. saptadaśan, P. sattaraha, H. satrah for sattarah:—Eighteen, S. ashṭadaśan, P. atṭharaha, H. aṭhūrah:—Twenty, S. vinšati, P. vīsaī, H. bīs.

The numbers 19, 29, 39, etc. are formed by prefixing to the following decades the word un (Sanskrit  $\bar{u}na$ , 'diminished'), and making certain changes in the initial letters of some of the decades: e.g. the v of the Prükrit  $v\bar{i}sa\bar{i}$ , is clided; as, Nineteen (i.e. 20 diminished by 1) is  $un-\bar{i}s$ : so also in the other compounds,  $ek\bar{i}s$ , 'twenty-one,' and so on.

Thirty, S. trimsat, P. tīsaä, H. tīs, whence Twenty-nine, untīs.

Forty, S. chatvarinisat, P. chattārisa (?), H. chātīs, by elision of the conjunct tt, and change of r to l. In compounds, chātīs is changed into  $t\bar{a}l\bar{i}s$ , before which the vowels a, i,  $\bar{i}$  of the units are changed to e,  $e\bar{n}$ , or  $ai\bar{n}$ . In forty-two and forty-six, ch is elided.

Fifty, S. panchāsat, P. pannāsa, H. pachās (which is closer to the Sanskrit than to the Prākrit); whence, Forty-nine, unchās, the first syllable of pachās being elided. In the numbers 50 to 58, the last syllable is dropped and original n restored; as pachpan. In 51, 52, 54, 57, 58, the p of pan is, for the sake of euphony, softened into b, and thence into v or w.

From the Sanskrit shashţi is derived the Hindī sāṭh, whence un-saṭh, 'fifty-nine,' iksath, 'sixty-one,' etc.

generally precede the noun, which may be in the singular or plural.

THE CARDINAL NUMBERS.

	FIGURES	š	NAMES.	FIGURES.		3.	names.
	ARABIC.	DEVA-		ARABIC. DEVA-		DEVA- NAGARI.	
1	1	9	ایک اولاد	12	11	१२	باره bārah.
2	۲	ર	ى do.	13`	11-	93	تيرى terah.
3	۳	3	يين tīn.	14	110	98	ا پورې چ chaudah.
4	9	왕	مار · chār.	15	10	94	پنگر y pandrah.
5	0	ц	pānch.	16	17	96	فامس solah.
6	٦	ર્દ્ધ	sez chha.	17	1	90	عىتى satrah.
7	V	0	سات sāt. ·				( عرادة العارة) athūrah.
8	۸	~	-€Ñ āṭħ	18	11	95	ا athārā.
9	9	e	i nau.	19	19	90	unīs and unnīs. أُنِيس
10	1.	90	نس das.	20	۲٠.	२०	لا بيس bīs.
11	11	99	أكارة j igārah. علاة gyārah.	21	۲۱	29	ایکیس ا ۴٨٦٤. ایکیس ا ikkīs.

In sattar, 'seventy,' the p of the Sanskrit saptati is assimilated to t, and final t changed into r; and in the compounds, initial s is, for the sake of euphony, changed into h; as unhattar, 'sixty-nine;' ikhattar, 'seventy-one.'

Ass $\bar{s}$ , 'eighty,' is from the Sanskrit  $a\dot{s}\bar{t}t\dot{t}$ , the final t being elided, and the sibilant doubled. In the compounds, however, the doubling of the sibilant does not take place, while the conjunctive vowel  $\bar{a}$  is added to the units; as  $un\bar{a}s\bar{t}$ , 'eventy-nine;'  $ik\bar{a}s\bar{t}$ , 'eighty-one;' . . . .  $naw\bar{a}s\bar{t}$ , 'eighty-nine,' instead of  $un\bar{a}nawe$ , as might have been expected.

Nawe, or narree, 'ninety,' is derived from the Sanskrit navati. In the compounds formed therewith, the conjunctive vowel  $\bar{a}$  is added to the units: e.g.  $ik\bar{a}nawe$ , 'ninety-one.'

The word sau, or sai, 'one hundred,' is derived from the Sanskrit sata, Prākrit sad.

FIGURES.			NAMES.	FIGURES.			NAMES.		
	ARABIC	DEVA- NAGARI.			ARABIC.		w ")		
22	77	२२	لأيس bā'īs.	40	p.	80	جاليس chālīs.		
23	۲۳	२३	te'īs.	41	101	કુવ	ایگتالیس کا قلمتالیس کا نظر انگتالیس کا iktālīs.		
24	14	२४	جُوْبِيس sp جُوْبِيس						
25	10	२५	يچيس pachīs.	42	15h	४२	بياليس be'ālīs.		
26	77	२६	chhabbīs.	43	احم	8३	تينتالِيس tentālīs.		
27	rv	२७	ستائِيس satā'īs.	44	lele	88	chau'ālīs. چواليس		
28	14	२८	aţħā'īs.	45	100	ઇપ	paintālīs. پينتاليس		
29	19	રહ	سُتِيسُ ( untīs.	46	۴۶		مياليس chhe'ālīs.		
30	٠٠٠,	30	ِ ئيس tīs	47	FV	80	عَينتا لِيس saintālīs.		
31	۳۱	39	(ایکتِیس ěktīs.	48	۴۸	8=	اژتالیس ) artālīs. ( athtālīs. اتّهتالیس )		
			اکْتِیس ( iktīs.	49	jeg	કહ	ساچياً unchās.		
32	۲۲	३२	بتِّيس battīs.				ي pachās.		
33	سس	33	tentīs.	50	5*	чо	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,		
34	۳۴	38	chauntīs. چونتيس	51	10	49	ایکاوں ک čkāwan. ایکاوں ) ikāwan.		
35	۳0	રૂપ	paintīs.	52	۲٥	પર	باون bāwan.		
36	٣٩	३६	متِّيس chhattīs.	53	ساه	чҙ	تر ہی trëpan or tirpan.		
37	٣٧	30	هينتيس saintīs.	54	oje	પષ્ટ	chauwan. چَوِّن		
38	٣٨	·3⊏	aṭhtīs. اتَّقْتِيس ) artīs.	55	00	чч	pachpan.		
			إِنْتَالِيس إِنْتَالِيس إِنْتَالِيس	56	٥٩	પર્ફ	جهيّن chhappan.		
39	۱۹۰۱	36	أنجاليس أunchālīs.	57	٥٧	७५	. sattāwan ستّاوي		

FIGURES.			NAMES.	FIGURES.		s.	NAMES.				
	ARABIC.	DEVA- NAGARI.			ARABIC.	DEVA- NAGARI.					
58	٥٨	ц⊏	aṭhāwan. النَّهاون	75	V٥	७५	pachhattar. پنج				
<b>5</b> 9	٥٩	પહ	أنست. الستي	76	٧٦	७६	chhihattar. چېټر				
60	٦٠	<b>န်</b> ဝ	ىلائىد sāṭħ.	77	VV	00	sathattar. استهيقر				
61	71 69	ર્દ્દ ૧	إيكستهم أ ěksaţh.	78	VA	95	aţhattar. النَّهَدَّر				
01	1	97	اکسیّا انگسیّا ( انگسیّا ) iksath.	79	<b>v</b> 9	90	أناسِي أunāsī.				
62	77	६२	وشاب bāsaṭh.	80	۸۰	<b>⊏</b> 0	ابِسِي assī.				
63	٦٣	ર્ફરૂ	tresath or ترسته	81	1	<b>E</b> 9	إيكاسِي } إيكاسِي }				
_	41.7		tirsath.				( اِکاسِي ikāsī.				
64	44	ર્ફ્ષ્ટ	چونستې چونستې پ chaunsaṭh.	82	۸۲	エマ	بياسِي be'āsī.				
65	70	ર્દ્ધ	-ç:"بَيْنِ painsaṭh.	83	٨٣	<b>E</b> 3	تراسِي tirāsī.				
66	77	ర్షక	جسایچ chhe'āsaṭh.	84	Ne	E8	چوراسي chaurāsī.				
67	7	ई७	عرستنج sarsath.	85	۸٥	Σų	پياسِي pachāsī.				
68	44	ξE	ర్జ	£.⊏	Ę <u>z</u>	ۇ <del>د</del>	ما الرستاء ) arsaṭh.	86	۸٦	दर्ध	چېماسېي chhe'āsī.
		9-	الَّهُسِيِّةُ athsath.	87	۸۷	20	ستاسي satāsī.				
69	79	ફ્૯	سنائه الأنها الأنها الأنها المناطقة ال	88	۸۸	エエ	aṭhāsī.				
70	٧٠	00	sattar.	89	19	26	nawāsī.				
71	VI	99	ایکریا قلاhattar.	90	9 * -	60	" nawe or nawwe.				
			أَنْ اللهُ	91	91	69	ایکانوي علی الله الله الله الله الله الله الله ال				
72	٧٢ .	७२	bahattar. بہتر	91	11	एप	ا كانوي ا ikānawe.				
73	٧٣	७३	tihattar. قبهتر	92	91	૯ર	bānawe. بانوي				
74	VIC	80	جوهقر chauhattar.	93	٩٣	<b>ए</b> ३	tirānawe. تِرانوي				

	FIGURE	3.	NAMES.	FIGURES.			NAMES.		
	ARABIC.	DEVA- NAGARI.			ARABIC.	DEVA- NAGARI.			
94	910	68	chaurānawe چورانوي	98	91	62	aţhānawe. اٿيانوي		
95	90	૯૫	panchānawe پٽچانوي pachānawe پچانوي	99	99	66	ninānawe. نِنانوي ) navānawe. نوانوي		
96	97	<b>હ</b> ફ	جهيانوي chhe'ānawe.				( sau.		
97	9 V	60	satānawe.	100	100	900	أ يَّسَى sai.		

Rem. In the compounds, nawe is generally contracted to nwe, as  $ik\bar{a}nwe$ ,  $b\bar{a}nwe$ , or the vowel of n is pronounced very rapidly. In  $Hind\bar{i}$  it also takes the form nawwe.

<sup>1</sup> In Hindī, the numbers between 100 and 200 are also expressed in two other ways:

1) by placing the smaller number with the adjective termination ā added to it, before the word عبون sau: e.g. بيسا سو bīsā sau, 'a hundred and twenty,' literally, 'one hundred having or possessing twenty:' 2) by adding to the numeral adjective the noun utar (Sanskrit utlar, 'over,' 'above'), the initial vowel of which coalesces with the termination ā of the numeral into o: e.g. النهوت والمائية والمائية

sand' is بنانوي هزار ninānawe hazār; but 'a hundred thousand' is expressed by a distinct word لاكب lākh (Sanskrit laksha); a hundred lacs, or 'ten millions,' by the word خرو"; a hundred karors, or 'a thousand millions,' by the word ارب arb; a hundred arbs, or 'a hundred thousand millions,' by the word خرب kharb.

Rem. The numerals , هزار , سُو , and , and , are properly collective substantives, and are frequently used as such; arb and kharb do not occur as numeral adjectives in Urdū, but they are used in Numeration.

53. By adding to a cardinal number the particle في ek, signifying 'about,' 'or so,' the idea of indefiniteness is given to it: e.g. بيس ايك bīs ek, 'about twenty;' يك sau ek, 'a hundred or so.' When so used, the numeral generally follows the noun it qualifies; as برس چار ايك baras chūr ek, 'about four years.'

Rem. This ایک is called مرف تنگیر harfe tankīr, 'the indefinite particle.' It is occasionally prefixed to nouns, and then has the signification of the English indefinite article.

- 54. The numeral ايك ek, 'one,' is rendered indefinite by placing after it the word  $\bar{s}i$   $\bar{a}d$  (said to be the contraction of the word  $\bar{a}dh\bar{a}$ , 'half,' but more probably the Sanskrit  $\bar{a}di$ , 'beginning'); as ايك آد ek  $\bar{a}d$ , 'beginning with one' 'one or more,' 'a few.'
- 55. Two numerals (not generally consecutive), when combined, often convey the idea of indefiniteness: e.g. على  $do\ ch\bar{a}r$  (lit. two four), 'two or three,' 'a few;' مس بِيس 'das  $b\bar{\imath}s$ , 'ten or twenty.'

#### THE ORDINAL NUMBERS.

The first four of the series are regularly derived from the Prākrit. The remaining ordinals are formed from the cardinals, by adding the termination wān (corresponding to the Sanskrit tama). As in English, in numbers above a hundred, the last part of the compound takes the form of the ordinal; as ايك سُو بِيسُول ek sau bīswān, 'the one hundred (and) twentieth.'

56. The ordinals are regularly inflected like adjectives ending in  $i = \bar{a} : e.g.$  پانچول  $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ , 'the fifth,' Fem.  $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ , ' $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ ), ' $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ , ' $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ ), ' $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ , ' $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ , ' $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ ), ' $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ , ' $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ , ' $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ ), ' $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ , ' $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ , ' $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ ), ' $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ , ' $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ , ' $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ ), ' $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ , ' $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ , ' $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ ), ' $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ , ' $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ , ' $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ ), ' $p\bar{a}nehw\bar{a}n$ 

#### Collective Numbers.

- 57. Collective numerals may be formed by adding to the cardinals the adjective terminations  $l = \bar{a}, = \bar{i}$ ; as  $b\bar{i}s\bar{a}$ , 'a score;' چالیسا ' $b\bar{i}s\bar{a}$ , 'a score ' $b\bar{i}s\bar{a}$ , 'an aggregate of forty;'  $batt\bar{i}s\bar{i}$ , 'an aggregate of thirty-two.'
  - 58. The following nouns are used as collective numerals:

They are used as substantives, taking the noun after them in the genitive case, or in apposition.—The word is always used in lieu of سَيكُّرُو is always used in lieu of سَيكُرُو is always used in lieu of سَيكُرُو in Numeration; as سَيكُرُو فَهُ الْهُ الْهُ الْهُ اللهُ اللهُ

Rem. The phrase 'per cent.' is also very generally expressed by the Persian phrase في مدِي  $f\bar{\imath}$  sad $\bar{\imath}$ .

59. The cardinal numbers, especially the tens, may also be used as collective numerals; as چار بیس *chār bīs*, 'four twenties.' More commonly, however, the cardinal number is put in the Formative plural, and is then used to convey the idea of 1) inclusiveness or totality; as دونر donon, 'the two together,' 'both' (the medial n of donon is inserted for euphony); تينون tīnon, 'the three together,' 'all the three;' and in some cases, to add force to the form, the crude form of the numeral is added to the Formative; as athon ath, 'the whole eight,' lit. 'the eight of the آٿيون آٿيو. eight: 2) indefiniteness or numerousness, in which case the higher numerals are of course used, and the word اسكة saikṛā is employed in lieu of سَيكَةِ وَلَ كَهِر sau: e.g. سَيكةِ وَلَ كَهِر saikṛā ghar, 'hundreds of houses,' lit. 'houses in hundreds;' هزارون رَّدُونِ hazūron ūdmī, 'thousands of men,' 'men in thousands;' لاکھوں رُ بئے lākkon rupa'e, 'lacs of rupees.'

Rem. a. It would appear from the current usage of the cognate dialects, that this form originally expressed collectiveness alone, and hence may be assumed by the lower numbers also; e.g. Sindhī vihen, 'in twenties.'

Rem. b. By adding to the numeral ایک the affix of intensity, ایسا elā, we have the form اکیلا akelā, 'one by itself,' 'alone,' corresponding to the series تینوں donon, دونوں tīnon, etc.

#### DISTRIBUTIVE NUMERALS.

60. The distributives are expressed by repeating the cardinal numbers once: e.g. ایک ایک ایک ایک ایک ایک ایک do do, 'by twos,' 'two apiece.'

#### MULTIPLICATIVE NUMERALS.

- 61. The multiplicatives are formed from the cardinals: 1) by adding to them the word گُني gunā (fem. گُني dogunā, or dugunā, (whence by contraction, دُگُنا dugnā, and, by elision of g, the more common دُوُلُنا 'dunā, 'two-fold;' تُرَانُا 'tigunā, 'threefold; وُلُنا 'tigunā, 'fourfold:' 2) by adding the termination هرا dohrā وهرا خاله المعارفة المعارفة
- Rem. a. The Persian and Arabic multiplicatives are also frequently used: the construction of these is given in §§ 103, 133.
- Rem. b. The word  $\int_{a}^{b} gun\bar{a}$  is derived from the Sanskrit guna, quality, etc; the affix a, b a a (contracted from a) from the Sanskrit a, by elision of a, and insertion of a euphonic a.

# NUMERAL ADVERES.

62. The numeral adverbs once, twice, thrice, etc. are expressed by adding to the cardinals the word بار  $b\bar{a}r$ , or  $b\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ , 'time' (Sanskrit  $v\bar{a}ra$ ), or one of the synonymous Arabic words مرتبه  $daf^*a$ , مرتبه  $daf^*a$ , ایک بار  $daf^*a$ , ایک بار  $daf^*a$ , مرتبه  $daf^*a$ , ایک بار  $daf^*a$ , ایک بار  $daf^*a$ , مرتبه  $daf^*a$ , ایک بار  $daf^*a$ , مرتبه  $daf^*a$ , مرتبه  $daf^*a$ 

ایک دفعه ek daf'a or ایک مرتبه ek martaba, 'once ;' دو بار 'once ایک دفعه dōār, ایک دفعه do martaba, 'etc., 'twice;' تین بار 'tin bār'a, etc., 'thrice.' تین دفعه tīn bār'a, etc., 'thrice.'

Rem. The same affixes (with the change of باره bārā into باره bāra) are used with the Persian cardinal numbers (§ 104).

63. Numeral adverbs showing in what order certain facts are treated, are expressed by employing the ordinals in the Formative singular: e.g. كرسري pahle, 'firstly;' بيسري pahle, 'firstly;' تيسري tisre, 'thirdly,' etc.; or by using the Persian ordinals; as اَوَل avval, 'firstly,' خُرُم duwum, 'secondly,' etc. (§ 104).

#### FRACTIONAL NUMBERS.

64. The fractional numbers are: a) Substantives; as

Rem. The fractional numbers of the Arabic are also of frequent occurrence: e.g. نِصَف nisf, 'a half,' suls, 'a third,' etc. (§ 134); and the Persian نِيم nīm, 'half,' is occasionally used.

# b) Adjectives; as

ن is derived from the Sanskrit  $p\bar{a}da$ ; ن from the Sanskrit  $trit\bar{\imath}y\bar{a}in\delta a$ , and ن ون from the S. adj.  $p\bar{a}dona$ ; أن from the S. arddha; أن from the S. arddha, 'with a quarter,' ن from the S.  $s\bar{a}rddha$  (sa + arddha), 'with a half.'

65. These fractions always precede the numeral or the noun with which they are used; and the unit employed in using them is 1, from 1 to 99 inclusive; 100, from 100 to 999 inclusive, and so on: e.g.  $paune\ b\bar{b}s = 20$ —  $\frac{1}{4}$  of  $1 = 19\frac{3}{4}$ ;  $paune\ b\bar{b}s = 20$ —  $paune\ sau = 100$ — $paune\ sau = 100$ — $paune\ sau = 100$ — $paune\ sau = 100$ — $paune\ sau = 100$ — $paune\ sau = 100$ — $paune\ sau = 100$ — $paune\ sau = 100$ — $paune\ sau = 100$ — $paune\ sau = 100$ — $paune\ sau = 1000$ —p

66. پَوْن paun; differs from پَوْن paune, inasmuch as it is generally used with units only; as پَوْن رُو پَيا paun rūpayā, 'a rupee minus a quarter,' i.e. ' $\frac{3}{4}$  of a rupee;' پَوْن گُـز ' $\frac{3}{4}$  of a rupee gaz, ' $\frac{3}{4}$  of a yard.'

آدها ādhā, 'half,' is an ordinary adjective, and is used

accordingly.

قرار ه derh is used with units of measure, quantity, etc. (as one yard, one maund), and with the collective numerals هزار sau, قرير عند من hazār, etc.: e.g. قرير گرز derh gaz, 'one yard and a half;' قرير د سن derh sau, 'one hundred and fifty;' قرير هنار 'one thousand five hundred.'

ازهائي arhāi also is used with collective numerals and nouns denoting measure, quantity, etc., which may be in the singular or the plural, as in the case of the integers:

e.g. اڙهائِي هزار '; aṛhūī sau, 'two hundred and fifty اڙهائِي سَو aṛhūī hazār, 'two thousand five hundred ;' اڙهائِي گز '; aṛhūī aṛhūī gaz, 'two yards and a half ;' اڙهائِي رُوپِيهُ aṛhūī rūpiya, 'two rupees and a half.'

Rem. From these fractions are derived other nouns and adjectives signifying 'consisting of,' 'containing,' 'at the rate of,' etc. e.g. آي pauwā, 'consisting of, or containing, one pā'o:' موايا sawāyā and موايا sawaiyā, 'consisting of one and a quarter,' or 'at the rate of  $1\frac{1}{4}$ ;' ٿيوڙها 'half as much again.'

67. Other fractional numbers are: a) those which are formed from the integers, or from the fractions, adjectives or substantives; as

# RAKAM (رقم).

68. Distinct from the system of notation noticed above is that called تربي rakam (an Arabic word signifying 'writing, or price-mark' on a thing), which is always used in recording pecuniary transactions, or computations involving weight, measure (of laud), such as maunds, bīghās, etc. (as shown in the Plate adjoining). It is taken, for the most part, from the initial letters of the names of the Arabic عدد one is a contraction of the Arabic عدد

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'adad; عدمان 'adadān; عدمان 'adadān; عدمان 'adadān; ثلاثه إلى 'adadān; ثلاثه يُعالقي عالمَة 'adads' عدمان 'adadān; ثلاثه عالمُعالقية 'adad'; عدمان 'adadān; عدمان 'adadān; ثلاثه عامية 'adadān; عدمان 'adadān, 'adadān; عدمان 'adadān, 'a

# PERSIAN AND ARABIC CONSTRUCTIONS.

69. The Urdū borrows largely from the Persian and Arabic languages, and the words borrowed are frequently treated according to the rules of inflection peculiar to the language from which they are taken. A knowledge of some of the most important facts of Persian and Arabic inflection is therefore indispensably necessary to the student of Urdū.

#### PERSIAN CONSTRUCTIONS.

- 70. Gender.—There is no distinction of genders in Persian. The distinction of sex is indicated, as in English, by the use of different words; as نره man, ن woman; or by the aid of the words نره nar, 'male,' ماده māda, 'female;' as شير ماده sherě nar, 'a male tiger,' شير ماده sherě māda, 'a female tiger.'
- 71. Declension.—In the declension of nouns, the cases, with the exception of the genitive, accusative, and vocative, are formed by means of prepositions, as in English. The only cases which demand notice in connection with Urdū are the genitive and the vocative.

#### THE GENITIVE.

72. The 'relation of the genitive case' (اضافت izāfat) is indicated by placing the determined or governing noun first, with the vowel kasra (called کشرهٔ اِضافت the kasra of annexation) attached to its final letter; as عِلْم طِبّ 'ilmě

tibb, 'the science, or art, of medicine;' فعداك shahrë bagdād,' the city of Bagdād.' If the governing noun end in s = a, or s = i, hamza must be employed to enounce the kasra (which need not then be written, since hamza can occur in such a position for no other purpose); e.g. ملكة هذه malika'ĕ hind, 'the Queen of India;' ملكة هذه māhī'ĕ daryā, 'the fish of the sea.' When the first, or governing word, ends in either of the long vowels  $l = \bar{a}$ ,  $l = \bar{u}$  or o, the hamza is followed by  $l = \bar{u}$  (the majhūl ye); as  $l = \bar{u}$  or o, the face of the earth.'

Rem. a. In employing this construction in Urdū, a Hindī proper name may stand in the place of the governed noun, but the governing noun must be Persian or Arabic: e.g. شير بريايي shahrë barelī, 'the city of Barelī' (Bareilly).

Rem. b. Whatever be the sign of the  $iz\bar{a}fat$ , its sound in Urdū is always that of short e ( $\check{e}$ ), between the kasra and the  $y\bar{a}'\check{e}$  majhūl.

73. The genitive may also be formed by reversing the order of the words and placing the governed noun first, in which case the izāfat is not used: e.g. ناه shahr panāh = بناه panāhē shahr, 'the protection of the city,' 'a wall of defence round a city;' المناه بالمناه ب

#### THE VOCATIVE.

74. The vocative case may be formed as in English, by prefixing an interjection to the nominative: e.g. اَي دَرُسَت ai dost, 'O friend;' but another common way of forming it is to add the termination  $1 - \bar{a}$  to the nominative; as يَ dilā, 'O heart;' دُونُ dostā, 'O friend.' If the nominative end in  $\bar{a}$ , a euphonic y is inserted between it and the affix; e.g. غَدَايا  $khud\bar{a}-y\bar{a}$ , 'O God.'

#### THE PLURAL.

- 75. The terminations of the plural are two; namely  $\bar{a}n$  for things animate, and  $\bar{b}n$  for things inanimate: e.g.  $\bar{b}n$  for things animate; e.g.  $\bar{b}n$  for things inanimate: e.g.  $\bar{b}n$   $\bar$
- 76. The Persian plural of nouns denoting inanimate things is also formed, in imitation of the Arabic, by the addition of the termination  $-1-\bar{a}t$  to the singular: e.g.  $d\check{e}h-\bar{a}t$ , 'villages,' 'the country' (in contradistinction to 'the town'), from في  $d\check{e}h$ , 'a village;' يورات  $zewar-\bar{a}t$ , 'ornaments,' 'jewels,' from زيور zewar; 'zewar; 'zewar, 'zewar)' (zewar)

'papers,' 'documents,' from کافذ  $k\bar{a}gaz$ . If  $s \leftarrow a$  be the final letter of the singular, it is changed into = j before the pl. affix is added: e.g. نامجات  $n\bar{a}maj\bar{a}t$ , 'letters,' from نامد  $n\bar{a}ma$ .

#### THE ADJECTIVE.

- 77. The construction of the genitive case is also that of the noun and its qualifying adjective, the adjective being generally placed after the noun: e.g. مرك نيك mardě nek, 'a good man,' زبان شِيري zabāně shīrīn, 'a sweet tongue.'
- 78. The adjective however often precedes the substantive, and in that case the izāfat is dispensed with: e.g. nek mard, 'a good man.' But more generally in this construction, the adjective and noun together form either a determinative compound (corresponding to the Karmadhāraya of the Sanskrit); as بخوش نویس rakhshinda-roz, 'shining day,' خوش نویس khwush navīs, 'a neat writer;' or an attributive compound (similar to the Bahuvrīhi of the Sanskrit): e.g. خوش نویس khūb-sūrat, 'handsome-faced,' 'handsome;' خورت بخوی bad-kho, 'ill-behaved,' 'having a bad disposition;' نیک نام 'nek-nām, 'having a good name,' 'celebrated.'

### COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

79. The comparative of an adjective is formed by adding to the positive the termination ترين tar; the superlative, by adding ترين tarīn: e.g.

لَهُ بِهُ běh, 'good,' بَيْتَرِينِ běh-tar, 'better,' بِيتَرِينِ běh-tarīn, 'best,' لَهُ بَهُ bad, 'bad, 'bad, 'arīn' بَتْرِينِ بِهُ bad-tar (or بَتْرِينِ bad-tarīn') 'worst,' لَتْرِينِ bat-tar), 'worse,' لَتْرِينِ bat-tarīn' أَنْتُرِينِ bat-tarīn' أَنْتُرِينِ أَنْ أَنْتُرِينِ أَنْ أَنْتُرِينِ أَنْ أَنْتُونِينَ أَنْتُونِينَ أَنْ أَنْتُونِينَ أَنْتُونِينَا أَنْتُونِينَ أَنْتُونِينَ أَنْتُونَا أَنْتُونِينَ أَنْتُونِينَ أَنْتُونَا أَنْتُونَا أَنْتُونِينَا أَنْتُونِينَا أَنْتُونَا أَنْتُنَا أَنْتُونَا أَنْتُونَا أَنْتُونَا أَنْتُنَا أَنْتُونَا أَنْتُنَا أَنْتُونَا أَنْتُونَا أَنْتُونَا أَنْتُونَا أَنْتُنَا أَنْتُونَا أَنْتُونَا أَنْتُنَا أَنْتُونَا أَنْتُنَا أَنْتُنَا أَنْتُونَا أَنْتُونَا أَنْتُنَا أَنْتُونَا أَنْتُنَا أَنْتُنَا أَنْتُونَا أَنْتُنَا أَنْتُنَا أَنْتُونَا أَنْتُنَا أَنْتُونَا أَنْتُونَا أَنْتُونَا

أون fāzil, 'learned,' فاضِلّتر ين fāzil-tar, 'more فاضِلّتر fāzil, 'learned,' learned.'

- Rem. a. The suffixes تریس and تریس are frequently added to the Arabic superlative (§ 106); e.g. تریس aulā-tarīn. 'best.' Such forms may be regarded as double comparatives and superlatives.
- Rem. b. The suffix  $1 \bar{a}$  adds the idea of intensiveness to the signification of an adjective; as  $\dot{k}\underline{h}\underline{w}ush\bar{a}$ , 'very happy,' from  $\dot{z}$  'happy.'

# THE INFINITIVE AND VERBAL NOUN.

- 80. Persian infinitives are of rare occurrence in  $Urd\bar{u}$ , but derivatives from them, as also from the verbal root, are frequently met with.
- 81. The infinitive always ends in one of the syllables من dan or تن tan; as دِيدن dīdan, 'to see;' گُفّتن guftan, 'to speak.'
- 82. The root (which is also the form of the singular imperative) is commonly used as a noun of action or abstract substantive. To obtain the root from the infinitive, it is sufficient, occasionally, to simply drop the characteristic termination of the latter:  $eg. \, j.j. \, parwar$ , from برورو 'to protect;' خرم 'to dig.' But, generally, the letter immediately preceding the termination is either dropped as well, or changed into some other letter or letters; e.g. خان 'to know;' خان 'to know;' داشتن 'to have or possess;' خان  $b\bar{a}z$ , from خان 'to have or possess;' خان  $b\bar{a}z$ , from کرد اشتن 'to make;' خان  $b\bar{a}z$ , from عن 'to bind or fasten;' کرد do or act;' خون  $b\bar{a}z$ , from بند 'to bind or fasten;' خوی  $a\bar{a}z$ , from کرد و from بند 'to speak.'

# VERBAL ADJECTIVES.

83. Past Participles are formed from infinitives, by changing the final . into silent s. They may have both an

active and a passive signification (though more commonly the latter), and may be used either as adjectives or substantives: e.g. فيده dīda, 'seeing,' 'seen,' 'the eye' (from بروده 'to see'); بروده parwarda, 'protected,' 'a protégé.' The past participles of some neuter verbs generally have the signification of the present part.; as خفت khufta, 'sleeping,' 'asleep' (from خفت 'to sleep'); خاست 'to sleep'); شايست 'to sleep', 'asleep' (from شايست 'to sleep'); شايست 'to become,' 'to be worth').

84. Passive participles are of frequent occurrence in composition with nouns, forming therewith determinative compounds (like the Tatpurusha of the Sanskrit): e.g. مال sāŋa-parwarda, 'sāl-khwurda, 'old in years;' غُورَدُه sāl-khwurda, 'delicately reared.' Occasionally the final s of participles ending in s is dropped; as زنگ آلُود zang-ālūd (= زنگ آلُود zang-ālūd), 'covered with rust,' 'rusty.'

Rem. The participle ending in & ta does not appear to be so used; but it seems probable that many words, as ''a friend,' ''fortune,' 'intoxicated' (= Sanskrit मत्त), which are now used as substantives and adjectives, were originally past participles.

- 85. Active Participles, adjectives, and nouns of agency, are formed:—a) By adding to the roots of verbs the terminations:
- 1)  $-\bar{a}$ ; as دان  $\bar{da}.\bar{a}$ , 'knowing,' 'learned,' 'wise,' 'a sage' (from the root of دانستن 'to know'); المين 'to see' (from the root of ديدن 'to see'); المين 'to speaking,' 'speaker,' 'an orator' (from the root of كُلتن 'to speak'); المين 'to speak'); كُلتن 'to be able'). Participles so formed sometimes

have a passive, as well as an active, signification; e.g. پذيرا pazīrā, 'accepting,' and 'accepted' (from the root of پذيرفتن 'to accept').

- 2) الم قَمْنَ an; as جويال جويال بن joyān, 'seeking,' 'seeker' (from the root of روان ; (اوان to seek'); روان rawān, 'going' (from the root of باران 'to go'); باران bārān, 'raining,' 'rain' (from the root of باریدن 'to rain'); ویان 'to rain'); باریدن 'to speaking,' 'speaker,' 'an orator' (from the root of گفتن 'to speak').
- 3) الله عن به anda (or inda); as رونّده ravanda, 'going,' 'goer' (from the root of رفّتي 'to go'); كننْده kuninda, 'doing,' 'doer' (from the root of كرّدي 'to do'); جوينّده 'seeking,' 'seeker' (from the root of بُحسّتي 'to seek').

Rem. This suffix may be attached to the root of any verb, and, like the preceding suffix ān, often forms appellatives as well as present participles. Like the corresponding suffix المن المعالمة المعال

- b) By adding the root of a verb to a noun, and thus forming a *determinative* compound (corresponding to the *Tatpurusha* of the Sanskrit). The root governs the noun:
- 1) In the accusative; as کاردای kār-dān, 'knowing work,' 'skilful;' زمیندار 'a landholder; زمیندار 'māl-guzār, 'paying revenue,' 'one who pays revenue,' 'a tenant;' مالگذار 'a tenant;' نعلبند 'na'l-band, 'fastening or fixing a shoe' (on a horse, etc.), 'a farrier.'
- 2) In the ablative; as شمشيرزن shamsher-zan, 'striking with the sword,' 'a swordsman' (from the root of زدن 'to strike'),

- 3) In the locative; as نِشِين takht-nishin, 'sitting on a throne,' 'a king' (from the root of نِشَسَّتن 'to sit'); 'subh-khez, 'rising in the early morning,' 'one who so rises,' and thence, 'a morning-thief' (from the root of خيزيدن 'to rise').
- Rem. a. The root in the same construction often gives the signification of the passive participle: e.g. خانه ساز <u>kh</u>āna-sāz, 'made in the house,' 'home-made;' خُدا بَخْش 'Khudā bakhsh, 'given by God' (from the root of بَخْشِيدن 'to bestow'); مُشِناس 'rū-shinās, 'known by the face,' 'an acquaintance' (from the root of شِناخْتى 'to know,' etc.).
- Rem. b. In Urdū a Persian root is occasionally joined to a Hindī word, which, if it end in ō, is inflected: e.g. گَجْرِّي سَاز 'a watch-maker;' مُرْدَاشْتِي 'a mace-bearer' برُداشَتِي 'to carry,'etc.); نققیص باز 'one who repeatedly plays jokes,' 'a jester;' مواتی باز 'one who plies the whip,' 'a whipper.'
- o) By adding a passive participle to a noun; as جہاں jahān-dīda, 'one who has seen the world,' 'experienced;' غم خُورَده gam-khwurda, 'one who nas suffered sorrow.'
- d) By adding the suffixes تار tār and دار dār to apocopated infinitives (the former to those ending in تى, and the latter to those ending in دى), and eliding the ت or of the infinitive termination; e.g. خواست تار <u>khwāstār</u> (for خواست تار), 'one who makes a request,' 'a petitioner' (from خريدار), 'to wish,' etc.); خواستن 'to wish,' etc.); خواستن 'to purchaser' (from خريدار).

Rem. These suffixes sometimes form adjectives with a passive signification; as گُرفْت giriftār, 'taken captive,' 'captive' (from گُرفْت to take or seize'). They are also used to form abstract substantives (§ 97).

# SUFFIXES FORMING NOUNS OF AGENCY.

- 86. Nouns of agency, and adjectives, are also formed by adding to substantives the following suffixes:
- ال کار ( $k\bar{u}r$ ; دستگار  $dast-k\bar{u}r$ , 'a handicraftsman,' 'an artificer' (from جفاکار 'hand'); جفاکار  $jaf\bar{u}-k\bar{u}r$ , 'an oppressor' (from پشکار 'oppression'); پشکار  $pesh-k\bar{u}r$ , 'an assistant,' 'an agent' (from پیش 'before').

Rem. The idea of agency is sometimes not very prominent: e.g. روزگار roz-gār, 'time,' 'the world,' 'fortune' (from روزگار)' day').

3) گر gar; as آهن آهندر آهن آهندر 'iron') جندگر jild-gar, 'a book-binder' (from جندگر 'iron') جندگر jild-gar, 'a book-binder' (from جندگر 'a skin,' 'a volume'); ورگر زرگر زرگر 'gold'); خرد منابع الله shīsha-gar, 'a glass-blower' (from شیشه گر 'glass'); ستم گر sitam-gar, 'an oppressor' (from ستم گر 'oppression').

الم چي  $ch\bar{i}$ ; as بارزچي  $b\bar{a}war-ch\bar{i}$  (lit. 'one possessing trust or confidence'), 'a cook' (from بارز trust, confidence'); 'trust, confidence'); 'a torch-bearer' (and, in India) 'a cook's mate' (from مشعل 'a torch'). If the final letter of the noun be s (silent), it is dropped before the termination is added; as خزانه  $khaz\bar{a}n-ch\bar{i}$ , 'a treasurer' (from خزانه 'treasure').

Rem. This suffix is derived from the Turkish.

5) بان bān, or بان wān, signifying 'keeping, watching, or guarding;' as باغ الغبان bāg-bān, 'a gardener' (from إلى 'a garden'); باغ dar-bān, and مروال dar-wān, 'a gatekeeper,' 'a porter' (from دربان 'a gate'); گريبان girelān, 'the collar of a garment' (lit. 'that which protects the گريبان or 'neek'); هريبان mihrbān, 'benevolent,' 'affectionate,' 'kind' (lit. 'guarding or keeping مربر و منه و مقاور و منه و منه

Rem. This suffix is occasionally attached to Hindī words also: e.g.  $g\bar{a}r\bar{i}$ -wān, or گاڙي والا  $g\bar{a}r\bar{i}$ -bān (= گاڙي والا) 'a cart man, or carter.' The original suffix is doubtless وان (related to the Sanskrit चन्त vant), the letters و and و being interchangeable.

- 87. Possessive Adjectives and substantives are formed by adding to substantives the following suffixes, denoting 'possession,' 'affection,' or 'fullness':

to  $M = \bar{a}r$ ; e.g. سالر  $s\bar{a}l$ - $\bar{a}r$  (lit. 'possessed of years,' 'old,' and thence,) 'a chief, or leader'; ويوار  $d\bar{a}w$ - $\bar{a}r$ , 'a wall' (lit. 'possessing a stratum, or foundation,' from مار ويو, for مار  $m\bar{a}la$ , or change of vowel).

Rem. In some words the suffix  $\tilde{a}r$  is redundant: e.g. زنگار zang- $\tilde{a}r$  (= نگار), 'rust,' also written زنگان zang- $\tilde{a}l$ , the letters j and j being interchangeable. So also دِيوال 'a wall.'

- 3) وار wār; as أميدٌوار umed-wār, 'having hope,' 'hopeful' (from سوگوار); موگوار 'hope'); سوگوار 'sog-wār, 'having grief,' 'mourning,' 'afflieted' (from سوگت 'grief,' 'sorrow').
- عار (from يار (from يار (from يار (from يار ; bakht-yār, 'fortunate' (from يار (fortune'); منتيار shahr-yār, 'possessor, or lord of the city,' 'a king' (from هوشيار ; 'city'); هوش hosh-yār, 'possessing sense,' 'sensible,' 'prudent' (from هوش 'sense,' etc.). In a few words this suffix is contracted to يربي er: e.g. بايد diler, 'possessing heart,' 'bold,' 'valiant,' د لاور dil-āwar.

Rem. The suffix مساور or آور āwar is properly (though not used as) the root of the verb آورگ 'to bring;' and to this is related the suffix , the root of the verb بر 'to bear or carry,' which, when com-

pounded with the preposition  $\tilde{1}$ , becomes  $\tilde{1}$ ,  $\tilde{1}$ ,  $\tilde{1}$  and  $\tilde{1}$  being interchangeable. From again, by lengthening the vowel, is formed the suffix.

The suffix  $\tilde{1}$  is but another form of  $\tilde{1}$ .

هار (from sār; as شرقه sharm-sār, 'bashful,' 'modest'

شرم 'shame').

Rem. هند corresponds to the Sanskrit मन् mant. It occasionally also takes the form وَدُد , the Sanskrit वन् want.

7) گيس sharm-gīn, 'abashed,' 'bashful;' غير sharm-gīn, 'abashed,' 'bashful;' خشمگيس <u>kh</u>ishm-gīn, 'inflamed with anger,' 'irate' (from خشم 'anger'); غم عمريس عمريس عمريس 'sorrow').

Rem. The original form of آگین is آگین āgīn, derived from the verb آگین , and signifies 'filled.' Added to nouns it sometimes serves to express a quality, as well as to form a possessive.

8) ناک nāk; as غَضَناک gazab-nāk, 'inflamed with wrath,' 'enraged' (from غَضَب 'rage,' 'violence'); مرد dard-nak, 'painful' (from كرك 'pain'); كرك haul-nāk, 'terrible,' 'fearful' (from هَوْل 'fear,' 'terror').

Rem. া more commonly forms adjectives of quality. It would appear to be related to the Sanskrit লল্ naj. It is occasionally added to verbal roots and adjectives also.

- 88. Possessive Adjectives are also formed by prefixing to a substantive:
- با نه  $b\bar{a}$ , signifying 'possessed of,' 'according to;' as  $b\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$
- 2) عاجِب sāhib (an Arabic noun, signifying 'possessor,' 'owner'); as عاجِب دِل sāhib-dil, 'pious,' 'godly' (lit. 'possessor of the heart'); عاجِب جمال sāhib-jamāl, 'beautiful,' 'handsome' (from عاجِب 'beauty'); عاجِب sāhib-naṣīb, 'fortunate' (from نصِيب 'destiny,' 'fortune').
- 89. NEGATIVE ADJECTIVES, denoting privation, or the absence of a quality, are formed by prefixing to a noun one of the following prepositions or adverbs, corresponding in signification to the English *un*, *in*, *dis*, *less*, etc.:
- 1) ج be, 'without' (always prefixed to substantives); as بے اِنَّاف be-parwā, 'fearless,' 'careless;' بے اِنَّاف be-wafā, 'faithless.'
- 2) کم (less, 'lacking' (prefixed to substantives); as کم (kam, 'less,' 'luckless;' کم زور 'kam-zor, 'powerless,' 'feeble کم بخت 'kam-himmat, 'spiritless,' 'unaspiring.'
- ن الْمَارِ (prefixed, originally, to adjectives alone, but, at the present time, to substantives also); as نا الْمَارِ  $n\bar{a}$ -umed, 'hopeless,' 'despairing;' نا پاک  $n\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}k$ , 'unclean;' na-khwush, 'displeased;' نا خُوش  $n\bar{a}$ -ahl, 'unworthy.'
- 4) غَير gair, 'other,' 'different,' 'opposite' (borrowed from the Arabic, and used before substantives and adjectives); as غَير حَاضِر 'gair-inṣāf, 'unjust;' غَير حَاضِر 'gair-hāzir, 'not present,' 'absent; غَير مُمْكِن 'gair-mumkin, 'impossible.'

- 5) لا لاً, 'not' (also borrowed from the Arabic, and prefixed chiefly to substantives, or adjectives employed as substantives); as الجارة lā-chār, 'helpless,' 'remediless;' لاجواب lā-jawāb, 'answerless;' لاجواب lā-wāris, 'heirless,' 'unclaimed.'
- 90. Adjectives of Similitude are formed by adding to substantives the suffixes:

Rem. The origin of these suffixes is the verb سُودن, whence by pre-fixing the preposition آ, the verb آسودن is derived.

2) سار sār; as خاکسار <u>kl.āk-sār</u>, 'like dust,' 'humble;' مار sag-sār, 'dog-like,' 'miserly,' 'a miser.'

Rem. سار affixed to substantives and adjectives is occasionally synonymous with سر 'head;' e.g. سگسار sag sār, 'dog-headed,' 'an inhabitant of a region where the inhabitants have heads like dogs; سُبُكُسار 'sabuk-sār ( سُبُكُسر ), 'light-headed,' 'unsteady,' 'foolish.'

- 3) ابْزُرگُوار as بُرُرگُوار buzurg-wār, 'like the great,' 'great,' 'excellent;' فرّه وار غرام zarra-wār, 'atom-like,' 'humble.'
- 4) گان gān; as خدایگان <u>kh</u>udāegān, 'like God' (a title of kings and great men), 'most excellent,' 'omnipotent.'

Rem. The signification of 'similitude,' in the case of both الله, and , often passes into that of 'fitness,' 'worthiness' (see § 91, 2, 3).

5) مان mān; as آسمان āsmān, 'like a mill-stone' (revolving), 'heaven' (from سا 'a mill-stone'). ا

¹ Such is the derivation of āsmān according to native scholars. The Zend ferm of the word is ashman, the Sanskrit ऋषमन asman.

Rem. المائدة is used in some Persian words with the signification of 'possessing,' but is not found in Urdū. In the word نائدة it does not signify 'possession,' as Professors Monier Williams and Dowson affirm, but is redundant. It never can signify 'possession' when joined to an adjective.

- 6) ساه وش wash; as ماهوش māh-wash, 'like the moon.'
- 7) نام wand; as خُدارنّه <u>khudū-wand</u>, 'like God,' 'lord,' 'possessor;' whence, by contraction, خارَنّه, also signifying 'lord,' 'master,' 'husband.'
- 91. Adjectives denoting fitness or worthiness are formed by attaching to substantives the suffixes:
- 1) ناخ āna; as شاهانه shāhāna, 'befitting a king,' 'royal,' 'splendid;' مردانه mardāna, 'becoming a man,' 'manly.'

Rem. a. Such is the teaching of the native grammarians; but it appears far more probable that in these words, as also in دیوانه ـ بُزُرگانه , and many more, the relative suffix  $s = (\S 92, 6)$  is added to the plurals مردال ـ شاهال, etc.: خانه عامیات ماهای و relative suffix.

- Rem. b. From the signification of 'fitness,' arises that of 'manner,' which is also common to this suffix, and hence its use in forming adverbs: e.g. شاهانه 'royally,' مرضانه 'in a manly manner;' غرضانه 'interestedly.'
- 2) گاں  $g\bar{a}n$ ; as شایگاں  $sh\bar{a}'e$ - $g\bar{a}n$  (for شاهگای), 'worthy of a king;' رایگای, 'fit to throw on the road,' 'a thing found on the road,' hence, 'a thing obtained, or lost, for nothing,' 'anything worthless.'
- 3) مار wār, or وار wāra; as شاهّ وار shāh-wār, 'worthy of a king,' 'princely,' 'royal;' بُرُرُكُوار 'buzurg-wār, 'worthy of the great,' 'great,' 'excellent;' وهمّ وار عرصه واره gosh-wār, or گوشّ واره

gosh-wära, 'suitable to the ear,' 'an earring;' سَاهُوار māh-wār, or مَاهُوار māhwāra, 'adapted to a month,' 'monthly stipend,' etc., 'monthly.'

Rem. From the signification of 'fitness,' etc., arises that of 'measure,' 'quantity;' as  $j\bar{a}ma-w\bar{a}r$ , ('fit to make,' or) 'sufficient to make a garment'  $=j\bar{a}ma-bhar$ . The original form of this suffix is  $j\bar{a}ma-bhar$ , corresponding to the Sanskrit and Hindī  $H \subset har$ .

- 4) جَي , added to infinitives only; as خُورْدنِي <u>kh</u>wurdanī, 'fit to eat,' 'eatable' (from تُحْوَرْدن 'to eat'); گَفْتَنِي guflanī, 'fit to utter;' شُدنِي shudanı, 'fit to be.'
- 92. Relative Adjectives and Substantives are formed by adding to substantives the suffixes:
- 1) الم الم الم  $\bar{a}l$ , (used to form substantives); as چنگال  $\bar{a}l$ , 'a claw' (from چنگ 'bent, curved'); فرم الم خنبال 'the extremity of a thing,' 'a tail' (from ذم = دُنّب 'a tail').
- 2) اے  $\bar{a}n$ ; as بیاباں  $biy\bar{a}b\bar{a}n$ , 'a desert' (from بے آب 'without water'); پایاں  $p\bar{a}y\bar{a}n$ , 'end' (of the foot), 'extremity' (from پیشاں 'foot'); پیشاں peshan, 'the front or foremost part' (from پیش 'before;' from پیشان is derived پیشان  $peshan\bar{a}$ , 'the forehead').

Rem. The suffix المراس also forms patronymics and relative nouns of place: e.g. توران Ārān and توران Tūrān (from Īr and Tūr, sons of Farīdūn); أباك sipāhān, Ispahān (for سپاهای sipāhān, from المناباك an army'). It is sometimes redundant: e.g. آباك آباك آباك آباك آباك المناباك المنا

3) نا – āna; as ناشت dast-āna, 'a glove' (from 'hand'); المناف mard-āna 'pertaining to man; کاهاله اله kāsh-āna, 'a glass-house,' thence generally, 'a house;' مالانه sāl-ana, 'pertaining to a year,' 'yearly.'

- عَلَى gān; as گِرْدُ gird-gān, 'a walnut' (from گِرْدُ گَاں; 'round'); دِدٌ گَاں dih-gān ﴿ وَدٌ قَالَ pertaining to a village,' 'a villager' (بازرگاں; is the Arabic form of the word); بازرگاں būzar-gān (from بازرگاں), 'a merchant.'

Rem. The suffixes خاوند are also relative, and are common in Persian, although not frequently occurring in Urdū: e.g. خداوند 'pertaining to God,' 'a lord;' خويشاوند 'pertaining, or related, to self,' 'a kinsman.' These suffixes are all no doubt derived from the Sanskrit वन् vant, nom. वान vān.

6) ه عن المنتر ustura, 'a razor' (from استر the root of دست 'to shave'); دست dasta, 'a handle' (from دست dasta, 'a handle' (from دست tabāna, 'flame' (of fire, etc.), from زبان 'tongue;' دهای dahāna, 'the bit of a bridle' (from دهای 'mouth'); روزه 'poza, 'pertaining to a day' (from روزه yak-tarfa, 'pertaining to one side,' 'one-sided' (from یک طرف yak-tarfa, 'pertaining to one side,' 'one-sided' (from یک طرف one side').

Rem. The suffix s = is sometimes redundant, as in چارد chāra, کینه kīna, عارد āwāza.

Rem. In lieu of بر به the form الماء sometimes occurs: e.g. به pashmīna, 'made of wool,' 'woollen;' علينه ganjīna, 'that which is obtained from a repository of treasure,' a treasury.' The suffix الماء is also used in forming the superlative degree, and is added to many words to form degrees of comparison: as به الماء الماء pasīn, 'posterior.' It is sometimes redundant: e.g. بسيس pasīn, 'posterior.' It is sometimes redundant: e.g. بسيس ألقاء الماء 'first.'

8) جي آ, forming patronymics and other relative adjectives; as پارْسِي pārsī, 'of Persia,' 'Persian;' پارْسِي hindī, 'of India,' 'Indian;' هاهي shāhī, 'pertaining to a king,' 'royal;' خُوني 'ātishī, 'of fire,' 'fiery;' خُوني للله khūnī, 'sanguinary,' 'bloody,' 'a murderer.' If the final letter of the noun be عند a, it is changed into عند before the suffix; e.g. خانگي khūnagī (or khūngī) 'pertaining to the house,' 'domestic.'

Rem. جي is occasionally redundant, chiefly at the end of Arabic words: e.g. اِعْتِدَادِ 'itikādī – اِعْتِدَادِ 'to believe firmly;' وَيَادِتِي 'increase,' 'excess.'

93. Adjectives denoting *colour*, or similitude of colour, are formed by means of the suffixes فام *fām*, and گُور *gūn*, as عَلَى فَام *siyāh-fām*, 'blackish;' سياد فام *lā'l-jām*, 'ruby-coloured;' گُلُور 'jāla-gūn, 'rose-coloured گُلُور 'tala-gūn, 'tulip-coloured.'

Rem. فام may also take the forms وأم  $w\bar{a}m$ , وأم  $p\bar{a}m$ , and بأم  $b\bar{a}m$ ; and in place of عُون the form عُون is occasionally found.

94. Adjectives and substantives denoting fellowship, companionship, equality, etc., are formed by prefixing to a substantive the adverb من ham, signifying 'together,' 'same,' and corresponding to the English 'fellow,' 'mate,'

Rem. בי may also occur as the latter part of a compound, a preposition being prefixed to it: e.g. אָלֹם bāham, 'together,' 'along with;' בי bār-ham, 'upon one another,' 'confused' 'jumbled,' 'angry,' dar-ham, 'one under another,' 'higgledy-piggledy,' 'confused,' 'angry.'

- 95. Nouns of Place, or المَّمائي مكان asmā'ĕ makūn, ealled also المَّمائي فَلُوف asmā'ĕ zurūf ('nouns that express the vessels which contain things'), are formed: a) by placing after a noun one of the following nouns:
- 1) إلاه آباك ābād, 'populated by,' 'city;' as الله آباك ilāh-ābād, 'the city of God,' (Anglice) 'Allahabad;' الخبر آباك akbar-ābād, 'the city of Akbar,' 'Agra;' شاه جهال آباك shāh-jahān-ābād, 'the city of Shāh-jahān,' 'Dehli.'

Rem. گاه also signifies 'time,' and is used to form nouns of time (اسمائے زمان asmā'ĕ zamān); as سحرگاه saḥur-gāh, 'morning' (from 'dawn'); شام گاه شام گاه 'evening').

3) خانه <u>kh</u>āna, 'house;' as كارٌ خانه <u>kār-kh</u>āna, 'a work-shop;' خانه <u>kutub-kh</u>āna, 'a library' (from گُتُب خانه وأد غانه (a book'); قَد خانه <u>kaid-kh</u>āna, 'a prison' (from قَد أنه imprisonment:' in India the compound جيل خانه, from the English 'jail,' is also commonly used).

Rem. The words , I, and als must not be regarded as suffixes.

The construction is that of the inverted genitive (§ 73), and forms acterminative compounds.

- b) By adding the following suffixes to nouns:
- 1) گلِستای istān (the Sanskrit स्थान sthāna); as گلِستای istān, 'a rose-garden;' کوهستای koh-istān, 'a mountainous region;' ریگستای reg-istān, 'a sandy place.' If the noun end in a vowel, the initial vowel of the suffix is dropped: e.g. بُوستای būstān, 'a place of fragrance,' 'a garden.'
- 2) من shan; as گُلْشن gul-shan, 'a rose-bed, or rose-garden.'
- 3) نا  $n\bar{a}$ , or نائیائے ' $n\bar{a}e$ ; as آبنائے ' $\bar{a}b$ - $n\bar{a}e$ ' a strait; تنگنا  $tang\ n\bar{a}e$ , 'a narrow place,' 'a defile,' 'a strait' (also تنگنا  $tangn\bar{a}$ ).

A variety of the noun of place is the noun of multitude (المَا الْمَا الْمَالْمَا الْمَا الْمَا الْمَا الْمَا الْمَالِمِ الْمَا الْمَا الْمَا الْمَا الْمَا الْمَا الْمَا

- 1) الآغزار sar; as المرزوزار gul- $z\bar{u}r$ , 'a place where roses abound,' 'a rose-garden;' سبزه زار sabza- $z\bar{u}r$ , 'a place where verdure abounds,' 'a meadow;' بازار  $b\bar{u}$ - $z\bar{u}r$  (contracted from ابازار), 'a place where provisions (با) abound,' 'a market.'
- 2) سار sār; شاخسار shākh-sār, 'abounding in branches,' 'a place where branchy trees abound; 'نمكسار 'abounding in salt,' 'salty,' 'a salt-mine;' رُخسار 'tukh-sār, 'the cheek,' 'the face.'
- عن بار (a place abounding in stone,' 'a stone-pit;' جويبار joʻc-bār, 'a place abounding in streams;' خويبار zang-bār, 'the country inhabited by the Ethiopians,' 'Zanguebar.'

Rem. بار is related to the Sanskrit बार vāra, 'a multitude.' It has other significations also; e.g. a) 'permission,' 'approach to royalty,' as in مربار عامله معالمة, 'the court or levee of a prince:' b) 'time,' 'turn,' as بار يعلم yak-bār, 'one-time,' 'once.' With the suffix يكبار to rain,' which occurs in compounds: e.g. باريدن gauhar-bār, 'raining or scattering pearls.'

- 4) الخ الآه ; as منتَّلَاخ sang-lākh, 'a place abounding in stone;' ديولاخ dev-lākh (or de o-lākh), 'a place abounding in demons.'
- 96. Connected with the noun of place is the 'noun which is the vessel or receptuele (غرف of a thing,' and which is formed by means of the suffix دای  $d\bar{a}n$ ; e.g. مکدال  $anak-d\bar{a}n$ , 'a salt-cellar;' شمعدال shama'-d $\bar{a}n$ , 'a candle-stick;' تنگدال  $kalam-d\bar{a}n$ , 'a pen-case.'

Rem. This suffix is added to Hindī nouns also, and may take the form داني; e.g. اگالدان ; e.g. اگالدان  $p\bar{\imath}k\cdot d\bar{a}n$  (or پیکدان  $p\bar{\imath}k\cdot d\bar{a}n$ ), 'a spittoon'—properly, 'a vessel for receiving the ugāl or  $p\bar{\imath}k$ , i.e. the juice of the betel-leaf which is spit out.' Nouns (masc.) ending in  $\bar{a}$  are inflected before the affix is added: e.g. چُوهے دان e برهے دان و.

- 97. Abstract Nouns are of two kinds: a) those which denote states or acts, and are verbal, being derived from infinitives, or roots of verbs:
- 1) By dropping the final ن of infinitives; as خريد kharīd, 
  'purchase,' from نرخواسّت 'to buy;' درْخواسّتن dar-khwāst,
  'request,' from فروخّت 'to desire or request;' فروخّت 'to sell.'
- 2) By adding the suffixes v tar and v dar to apocopated infinitives; the former to those which end in v tan,

and the latter to those ending in دي dan; e.g. گفتار guflār, 'saying,' 'speech ;' وقتار 'raflār, 'gait,' 'procedure ;' ديدار 'dīdar, 'seeing,' 'sight.'

- 3) By adding to the roots of verbs the suffix خا $\sim \bar{a}k$ ; as تپاک  $tap\bar{a}k$ , 'agitation;' خُوراک  $khwur\bar{a}k$ , 'food;' سوزاک 'soz $\bar{a}k$ , 'inflammation,' 'strangury.'
- 4) By adding the suffix ان خَرْمان أَنْ غَرْمان (i ān to verbal roots; as فرّمان farmān, 'command' (the Sanskrit प्रमाण pramāṇa); باران bārān, 'rain.'
- 5) By adding the suffix شب ish to verbal roots; as خواهِش بُرُورِش بُنه khwāhish, 'desire,' 'wish;' پُرُورِش parwarish, 'nurture,' 'support;' بِينِش bīnish, 'seeing,' 'discernment;' مُرَانِش dānish, 'knowledge,' 'wisdom.'

Rem. This suffix often forms abstract nouns of quality also.

- 6) By adding the suffix  $s \leftarrow a$  to verbal roots; as لرزوه larea = نالی 'tremor;' نالیش  $n\bar{a}la =$  نالیش 'whiteness.'
- b) Those which denote *qualities*: they are formed by means of the suffixes:
- 1)  $l = \bar{a}$ , added to adjectives; as گرفها  $garm\bar{a}$ , 'heat,' 'summer;' مرفها  $sarm\bar{a}$ , 'cold,' 'winter.'

- پشیده the pass. part. of نموده 'to stick'); but if the adjective be an Arabic word, the final h is changed to t (or rather the original  $\ddot{s}$  t, which on account of the loss of the final vowel became s h, is restored); e.g. زیادتی  $ziy\bar{a}$ - $dat\bar{\imath}$ , 'excess,' from زیاده  $ziy\bar{a}da$ , 'more,' 'excessive.'
- 98. The Diminutive is formed by means of the following suffixes:
- 1) عند الله (used chiefly with nouns denoting animate things); as مردئ mardak, 'a manikin,' 'a contemptible man;' يُقبِلُ tiflak, 'a little child;' عند الله aspak, 'a small horse,' 'a pony;' د شعت dastak, 'a small hand,' 'a tap at a door;' تُقبِرِك ; zambūrak, 'a small gun or swivel.'
- Rem. a. s being interchangeable with \ in Urdū, this suffix sometimes takes the form چا; e.g. دیگیا degchā; whence, by forming the Hindī diminutive thereof, دیگیی degchī.
- Rem. b. Diminutive forms are commonly used in Persian and Urdū to express contempt, endearment, regard, etc.
- 99. Compounds occur in great variety of forms in Persian, and many such are borrowed by the Urdū. The most important of these—the Determinative and the Attributive—have been noticed in treating of the genitive case, and the adjective (§§ 73, 78). There remains:

#### THE COPULATIVE COMPOUND.

This may be composed: 1) of two verbal roots or imperatives: a) either one and the same verb repeated, and the last a negative; as دارومدار dār-ma-dār (and دارومدار), 'hold, hold not,' 'adjustment of a dispute;' کش مکش kash-ma-kash (and کش ومکش), 'pull, pull not,' 'pulling backwards and forwards,' 'distraction,' 'tumult;' b) or of two different verbs; as دارگیر dār-gīr (and دارگیر), 'seizing,' 'pomp,' 'tumult.'

- 2) of an apocopated infinitive and the root of the same verb; as گُفْتُگُو guft-gū (and گُفْتُگُو), 'conversation ;' جُسْت 'بُورُ just-jū (and جُسْت رُجُو just-jū (and جُسْت رُجُو just-jū.
- 3) of two apocopated infinitives; as آمد رفّت āmad-raft (and آمد ورفّت), 'coming and going,' 'intercourse;' تُفّت 'guft o shanūd, 'speaking and hearing,' 'colloquy,' 'altercation.'
- 4) of two nouns of different signification, as پاي و پر pa'e-o-par, 'power;' or of the same signification, as جُو جُو jau jau, 'grain, grain,' 'grain by grain;' قيل وقال 'kīl o kāl, 'speech and response,' 'discourse.'

Rem. To this class also belong those compounds in which the last word (which is used merely to rhyme or jingle with the first) is called the تابع tābi' or appositive, by the native grammarians: e.g. هرج مرج مرج (confusion, 'tumult.'

Two words, whether the same or different, are often connected by means of the letter 1, which may have the signification: a) of 'and;' e.g. کشاکش kashā-kash, 'pulling one way and the other,' 'distraction,' 'tumult;' رستاخیز 'rastā-khez, 'escaping and rising,' 'the day of resurrection;'

تگاپر tagāpū, 'running and running,' 'diligent search,' 'bustle,' 'toil.'

- b) of close proximity; as برابر barā-bar, 'breast to breast,' 'on a level with,' 'equal;' بالب labā-lab, 'lip to lip,' 'brimful;' دمادم damā-dam, 'moment to moment,' 'each moment,' 'continually.'
- o) totality or completeness; e.g. سراسر sarā-sar, 'from end to end,' 'throughout,' 'altogether;' سراپا sarā-pā, 'from head to foot,' 'completely.'

Rem. Similarly two members of a compound are often connected by the preposition ba 'to,' etc., e.g. دم بدم ba 'to,' etc., e.g. دم بدم ba 'to,' etc., e.g. دم ba 'from place to place,' 'one place after another;' جابجا yak-ba-yak, 'one by one;' دست yak-ba-yak, 'one by one;' بدست dast-ba-dast 'hand in hand,' 'from hand to hand,' 'quick,' 'prompt.'

#### NUMERALS.

100. The following Table gives the leading Cardinal Numbers:

. 5 6.							1	duwāzdah	10
يت .	yak.	٠	•	٠	٠	•	1	auwazaan	12
دُوْ	du.		۰	٠	•		2	8īzdah	13
بيبة	sih .			à		٠	3	ohahārdah	14
چہار	chahā	r	٠	•		٠	4	pānzdah	15
ب لاانچه	panj		٠	•			5	shānzdah آ . ها نزده	16
شش	shash		٠				6	s مغده hafdah	17
هفت	haft.		•		•		7	hashdah	18
هشت	hasht	٠		٠	•	•	8	توزّى ، nūzdah	19
نُه	nuh.						9	bīst	20
80	dah.						10	bīst-o-yak	21
ياز <i>ده</i>	yāzda	ħ	•	•	,		11	bīst-o du 5 بيست ودُو	22

. ۰ ۰ . ۶۳ سِي	30	si-ṣad	300
لبِ chihal	40	chahār-şad چہار صد	400
ا panjāh أ	50	بانّصد pān-ṣad	500
shaṣt	60	shash-şad . ششصد	600
مقتاد haftād	70	haft-şad	700
مَشَّتَاك hashtād	80	hasht-ṣad.	800
nuvad	90	nuh-ṣad	900
sad	100	هزار hazūr	1000
. şad-o-yak صدويك	101	ار خزار dah hāzār.	10,000
dū-ṣad دُوصد	200	lak	100,000

#### ORDINAL NUMBERS.

101. The ordinal numbers are formed by adding the termination رئے um to the corresponding cardinals, but in the third and the ninth (optionally) the final s is changed into , before the termination is added; e g. يكم yakum, 'first;' من duwum, 'second;' من siwum, 'third,' etc.; من nuhum, or نُوم nuwum, 'ninth;' من dahum, 'tenth,' and so on. If the number lie between the decades (as بيست و دُوم bīst-o-duwum, 'twenty-second.'

#### DISTRIBUTIVE NUMERALS.

102. The distributives are formed, as in Hindī and Urdū, by repeating the cardinals: e.g. يك يك yak yak, 'one at a time,' 'singly,' 'one apiece;' مُودُو dū dū, 'two at a time,' 'by twos,' 'two apiece.'

#### MULTIPLICATIVES.

103. Multiplicatives are formed by adding to the cardinals: 1) the adverb چند chand, 'so many:' e.g.

du-chand, 'twofold;' 2) the suffix لا تَّه بَعْ يَعْلَى yak-tā, 'single,' كُوبًا غُرُط du-tā, 'double:' 3) the suffix كُوبًا \$\display gana\$ (corresponding to the Hindī affix لَيْكُ gunā): e.g. يَكُ كُونا yagāna, 'single' (for يَكُ كُونا , by contraction); مُركانا عُركانا , by contraction); مُركانا الله du-gāna, 'double.'

#### NUMERAL ADVERBS.

104. The numeral adverbs 'once,' 'twice,' etc., are expressed by adding to the cardinals the word باره bār, or باره bāra, 'time,' or one of the synonymous Arabic words نَوْبِت maubat, يكّب معتبه martaba, or دَعْه daf'a: e.g. يكّباره yak-bāra, or يكّباره du-bāra, يكّب نَوْبِت yak-bāra يكّب نَوْبِت yak-naubat, etc., 'once;' يكباره du-bār, دُوبار 'du-bāra, دُوبار 'du-naubat, etc., 'twice.' The adverbs 'firstly,' 'secondly,' etc., are expressed by the ordinals: e.g. يكم yakum, 'firstly,' غُرُم duwum, 'secondly,' etc.

#### ARABIC CONSTRUCTIONS.

105. Nearly all Arabic words are derived from some verbal root, consisting for the most part of three letters, with the help of one or more of the seven letters of augmentation (or, as they are commonly termed, servile letters) y, t, s, m, n, ū, ā, or a, which are comprised in the word yatasammanū. A large number of verbal nouns are derived from the ground form of the triliteral verb, but it is not necessary to notice more of these than occur in Urdū; the models (or, as they are technically termed, the measures) of such are given below with examples. In these measures, as in those of all the derived forms to be noticed, the letters in those of all the derived forms to be noticed, the letters is in those of all the derived forms to be noticed, the letters are dical letters, and the servile is to represent final and of the Urdū.

ME	ASURE.	EXAMPLE.		ASURE.	EXAMPLE.	
1.	فَعْل	katl, 'killing.'	17.	فُعَال	الله دُخ du'ā, 'praying.'	
2.	فِعْل	'ilm, 'knowing.' عِلْم	18.	فَعُول	kabūl, 'accepting.'	
3.	ر ن فعل	hukm, 'ordering.'	19.	نُعُول	أ. huṣūl, 'acquiring'	
4.	فَعَل	إن talab, 'seeking.'	20.	فِعْلَان	hirmān, repelling.	
5.	فِعَل	;igar, being small.	21.	فعلان	".gufrān, 'forgiving غُفّران gufrān, 'griji'	
6.	فُعَل	مُديل hudā, 'guiding aright.'	22.	فَعَلَانِ		
7.	فعكة	raḥmat, 'pitying.'	23.	وَ اللهُ	tating.' sa'ādat, 'being معَادَت	
8.	فِعْلَة	rihlat, 'travelling.'			happy.'	
9.	فعكة	kudrat, being able.' قُدْرَت			'پنابت kitābat, 'writing.'	
10.	فعكة	بُرَكَ تِ ḥarakat, 'moving.'			"bugāyat, 'rebelling.' بغَايَت	
11.	فعكة	.'sariķa, 'stealing.'	26.	فعوكة	su'ābat, 'being صُعُوبَت	
12.	فَعْلَي	رُولِ da'wā, 'asserting.'	27.	فَعَلِيَّة	difficult.' <i>rafāhiyat</i> , 'being وفاهِيَت	
13.	فِعْلَى	يُ كَرِيَل zikrā, 'remembering.'			ample.	
14.	ِ افْعْلَى	bushrā, communi- بشرى			marja', 'returning.'	
15	فعال	cating goodness.'	29. d	العقا	marḥamat, 'pity- ing.'	
	نعال <u>ف</u> عال	salām, being safe.	30.8	تفعد	mamlukat, 'having	
16.	فعال	kiyām, 'standing.' قيام			dominion.'	

All these forms cannot be derived from *one* verbal root; very few verbs have more than two or three, and the majority admit of but one form. Some of the measures (for example Nos. 10, 11, 18) offer very few examples in Urdū.

ال كاو  $du^i\bar{u}$  was originally أياو (from the root ال عبون). In verbal nouns of the neasures of Nos. 15, 16, 17, final g or g is in Arabic changed into hamza (as generally happens when they follow the alif of prolongation), but the Persians and Indians drop the hamza, unless the noun is in the status constructus, and the  $iz\bar{u}fat$  is used.

#### VERBAL ADJECTIVES.

106. Other important derivatives are the *verbal* adjectives. The *measures* of those which commonly occur in Urdű are:

ا فاعِل (the Active Participle, or Noun of Agency: e.g. فاعِل (to know'); عالِم 'to know'); عالِم 'to judge'); حکم  $h\bar{a}kim$ , 'a judge,' etc. (from حکم 'to judge'); مابِر 'to be patient'); ضبر  $g\bar{a}bir$ , 'patient' (from صبر 'to neglect').

Rem. If the second radical of the verbal root be و or عن , it is changed into hamza (أ) in the active participle; e.g. قرم kā'im, 'standing' (from second rejects its vowel and unites with the third so as to form a double letter, which is marked with tashdīd: e.g. خاص khūṣṣ, 'special' (from خاص); as however tashdīd over a final (vowelless) letter is useless, it is dropped in Urdū: e.g. خام khūṣṣ . If the third radical be hamza (أ), or , it is changed into عن e.g. خام khūāṭ, 'empty' (from ).

2) معْلُوم لله The Passive Participle: e.g. معْلُوم ma'lūm, 'known' (from منظُور 'to know'); منظُور 'seen,' 'approved' (from نظر 'to see').

Rem. If the second radical letter be , it is elided in the pass. part., but throws back its zamma upon the preceding vowelless letter: مقُول makūl, 'said' (from قول 'to say'). If the second radical be , the same thing takes place, but, to indicate the elision of radical , the zamma is changed into kasra, and the servile is in consequence changed into : e.g. مين mabī', 'sold' (from بين 'to sell'). If the third radical be , it is elided: e.g. منتو mad'ū, 'called,' 'invited' (from دعو 'to call').

a form expressing either an inherent or permanent quality, or a degree of intensity: e.g.

hakīm, 'a sage' (from حكيم 'to judge,'

etc.); جيم rahīm, 'very compassionate' (from رحيم 'to have mercy').

Rem. Adjectives of the three measures noticed above are commonly used as substantives also.

a form with the same signification as the preceding: e.g. صَبُور sabūr, 'very patient' (from مَبُور 'to be patient'); غفُور 'gafūr, 'very forgiving' (from غفر 'to forgive').

Rem. Verbal adjectives of the measures فَعِيل and فَعِيل, derived from verbs of which the third radical is , or , are subject to the same changes as those of the form نبيي .e.g. نبي nabī, 'a prophet' (from نبي).

ismě tafzil). It has the signification of the English comparative and superlative, and is formed from verbal adjectives with three radicals, or with three radicals and a letter of prolongation: e.g. احسن الماهم المناسبة المناسب

Rem. Other adjectives of the measures فَعُل فَعْل فَعُل فَعْل فَعُل فَعْل فَعُل فَعْل فَعُل فَعْل فَعُل فَعْل فَعُل فَع

107. From triliteral roots are derived other forms of verbal nouns also, which, since two or more of the servile letters occur in them, are termed augmented infinitives (عدر منزيد maṣdarĕ mazīd) by the native grammarians. It will be more convenient to speak of them as verbal nouns of the second, third, etc., derived forms. These

verbal nouns moreover have corresponding adjectives, similar to the فَاعِل and مَفْعُول of the first or ground form of the triliteral verb. The measures of both are given below, with examples.

- a) VERBAL NOUNS OF THE DERIVED FORMS.
- قرح e.g. تَفْعِيلُ tafrīlı, 'gladdening' (from نُعِلَةُ 'being glad'); تَعْلِيهِ taˈtīn, 'teaching' (from عَلَم 'to know'); تَعْلِيهُ tazkira, 'reminding' (from عَلَم tarrika, 'scattering,' 'distributing' (from فرق 'to separate'). Of the two measures, the first is the more common, the last is used chiefly where the third radical letter is , or .

Rem. If the third radical of the verb be , or , it is changed into !: ناقع mulāķāt, 'meeting,' from مُلاقات 'to meet.'

الْعَال . الْجَرا -c.g.  $ijr\bar{a}$ , 'eausing to flow' (from جري 'to flow'); اِخْراج  $i\underline{k}hr\bar{a}j$ , 'eausing to go out,'

'issuing'(from خرج 'to go out'); الكار 'inkār, 'denying' (from نكر 'not knowing or acknow-ledging').

Rem. If the first of the radical letters be , it is changed into ي: e.g. إينا (for إينا), آرة, 'performing a promise' (from إينا). If the second radical be , or , it is elided, but throws back its vowel upon the vowelless first radical, and the termination t is added by way of compensation: e.g. إعوان from , it is changed into hamza: e.g. إعوان from , it is changed into hamza: e.g. 'granting freedom, or pardon' (from عفو); in Persian and Urdū however the hamza is dropped, unless the noun is in the status constructus, and the izāfat is used.

v. تَفَعُّل -e.g. تَكَبِّر takabbur, 'making oneself great,'
'being proud' (from تخبير takbīr, 'making
great'); تصوير taṣawwur, 'pieturing to oneself,'
'conceiving' (from تصوير taṣwīr, 'making a
pieture').

Rem. If the third radical be و or و is always changed into ي, and), the influence of the ي changes the zamma of the penult syllable into kasra: e.g. تسلِّي tasallī, 'becoming comforted' (from سلِّي).

vi. تغامُّل e.g. تناسُب tanāsub, 'resembling,' 'being related' (from مُناسِب munāsabat, 'being related to'); تقامُّل takārub, 'approaching' (one another), from مُقارِب mukārabat, 'approaching.'

Rem. If the third radical be و or ي, the same change is made as in the fifth form: e.g. تداوي tadāwī, 'treating oneself medically' (from ي). The Persians frequently change the final ي of such

words into 12; as La tamannā, 'desire,' lala tamāshā, 'spectacle,' 'recreation,' 'fun.'

فصل infiṣāl, 'being decided' (from إنَّفِعَال 'to decide'); النَّفِعَال inkishāf, 'being uncovered, or revealed' (from كشف 'to open or reveal').

Rem. If the third radical be و or ي, it is changed into hamza, which however is, as usual, dropped in Urdū: e.g. إِنْطِفا (for اِنْطِفا), intifā, 'being extinguished' (from الطفي).

viii. اِجْتِماع e.g. اِنْتِعَال ijtimā', 'becoming collected,'

'assembling' (from جمع 'to collect');

'itirāz, 'putting oneself in the way,'

'opposing' (from عرض to place'—before

one); من iktidār, 'becoming powerful'

(from قدر 'to make powerful,' etc.).

Rem. If the first radical letter be ت t, the characteristic ت of this form unites with it into ; as التباع ittibā', 'following' (from اتباء). So also, if the first radical be , it is changed into ت, which unites with the characteristic ت of the form into ت: e.g. با ittifāk, 'agreeing' (from وفق). If the first radical be عن or j, the characteristic ت of the form is changed into عن which unites with an initial into ت: e.g. ارفي iddi'ā, 'claiming one's rights' (from الانباء) izdiالمقسم, 'pressing,' 'crowding' (from المقسم). If the first radical be من من or b the characteristic ت of the form is changed into b, which unites with initial b, into b: e.g. انسباه iṣṭilāḥ, 'a technical term' (from الملاء); انظاع (ألله itṭilā, 'becoming informed' (from الملاء).

IX.—This form does not occur in Urdu.

"فَعَالَ .w. أَسْتِغَالَ .e.g. إَسْتِغَالَ isti'dūd, 'getting oneself ready,' 'being ready' (from عد , the verbal noun of the fourth form of which, viz. إِصَّدَادُ i'dūd, signifies 'making ready'); إِسْتِغْفَارُ i'to forgive 'seeking forgiveness' (from غَفْرُ 'to forgive').

Rem. a. The changes which take place in this form are precisely similar to those which take place in the fourth form.

Rem. b. The following brief observations will throw light on the signification of these various forms:

The second (اَفْعَالُ), and the fourth (اِفْعَالُ), are usually causative or factitive. Verbs that are intransitive in the first form become transitive in these, and those that are transitive become doubly transitive, or causative. But in some instances the two forms have different meanings: e.g. 1. تعليم 'ilm, 'knowing,' 'knowledge,' 11. تعليم 'ilm, 'knowing,' 'knowledge,' 12. اعلى 'ilm, 'informing one of a thing.'

The third (مُفَاعَلَة), and the sixth (تَفَاعُلُ), commonly convey the idea of reciprocity, the latter necessarily so. When the first form is transitive, the third expresses the effort or attempt to perform that act upon the object; e.g. مُقَاتِلُهُ إِنْ اللهُ سُلَّمُ mukātala, ('trying to kill, cr) fighting with.' In the sixth form the idea of effort or attempt becomes reflexive: e.g. مُقَاتِلُهُ لَعَامُلُهُمُ اللهُ المُعَالِمُ اللهُ الله

The fifth form (تَغُعُلُ) is the reflexive of the second; but it is more commonly used with the effective signification, implying that an act is done to a person, or a state produced in him, whether caused by another or by himself: e.g. ثالمه 'ilm, 'knowledge,' تعلّم 'ta'līm, 'teaching,' تعلّم 'ta'allum, 'becoming learned.' The idea of intensiveness (which is often found in the second form) exists in the fifth also: e.g. تعربه نام المعربة ال

'separation into many groups, or in various directions.' In English this form must often be rendered by the passive.

The seventh form (الْفِعَالُ) is reflexive or effective in signification, and approaches nearly to the passive, by which it must often be rendered into English.

The eighth form (افتعال) is the reflexive of the first. The reflex object is either the accusative or the dative: e.g. اعْتِراْف i'tirāz, 'putting oneself in the way,' 'opposing' (from عَرْض 'placing something before one'); افْتُولُولِ الْمُعْرَابِ i'tirāb, 'moving oneself to and fro,' 'being agitated' (from 'فَرُبُ 'beating'); افْتُولُولِ iktidār, 'seeking power for oneself,' 'becoming powerful' (from 'قُدُرُت 'being powerful,' 'power'). The reflexive signification often gives rise to the reciprocal (which this form has in common with the sixth), and occasionally passes into the passive. In many cases too the eighth form has the same signification as the first.

The tenth form (الْسَتِعَالُ) is commonly used in the sense of taking, seeking, asking for or demanding what is signified by the first: e.g. استغفار 'to forgive'). It also often converts the factitive signification of the fourth form into the reflexive: e.g. السَّتَعْدَالُ isti'dad, 'getting oneself ready,' 'being prepared' (from jack) idad, 'making ready,' 'preparing').

Rem. c. The verbal nouns of the first and derived forms are commonly used as abstract substantives: e.g. تذكره 'ilm, 'knowledge,' تذكره 'tazkira, 'mention.'

## b) Verbal Adjectives of the Derived Forms.

The measures of these, with examples, are tabulated below. The difference between the form for the Active and that for the Passive Participle, consists simply in the vowel of the final syllable, the former taking kasra, and the latter fatha.

MEASURE OF ACT. PART.	EXAMPLE.	MEASURE OF PASS. PART.	EXAMPLE,
مُنْفَعِل ١١٠	moʻallim, 'a teacher'	مُفَعَّل	moʻallam,
	(from عِلْم).		'taught.'
مُفَاعِل 111.	muḥāfiz, 'guarding,'	مُفَاعَلُ ا	سية muḥāfaz,
	'custodian' (from جفظ):		'guarded.'
مُفْعِل ١٧٠	muṣrif, 'squander-	ويُفْعَلُ	muṣraf,
	ing' (from صرّف).		squandered.'
مُتَفَعِل ٧٠	matabaddil, 'chang-	مُتَفَعَّل	mutabaddal, مُتبدّل
	ing' (from بدل).		'changed.'
vi. كَتُفَاعِل	"muta'ārif, 'knowing مُتعارِف	مُتَفَاعَل	muta'āraf,
	(عِرْف from (عِرْف).		'known.'
مُنْفَعِل ٧١٢.	سنكشف munkashif, 'reveal-	مُنْفَعَل	سنكشف munkashaf,
	ing' (from کشّف).		'revealed.'
مُفْتَعِل ٧١١٢٠	mö'tamid, 'trusting'	مُفْتَعَل	möʻtamad,
	(from Ac)		'trusted'
م ستفعِل x.	mustakhrij, extract-	مُستَفَعَل	mustakhraj,
,	ing' (from خرج).		extracted.'

- 108. Verbs consisting of four radicals also occur in Arabic, having a ground form and three derived forms; but the first and second forms alone occur in Urdū. Employing an additional  $\mathcal{J}$  to denote the fourth radical, the measures of the *verbal nouns* of these forms are:
  - ترجمه eg. ترجمه tarjama, 'interpreting,' 'translation' (from زلزله ;'to interpret'); ترجم 'shaking' (from زلزل 'to shake').
  - 11. تَزَكْزُل e.g. تَنَعْلُل tazalzul, 'becoming in a state of motion,' 'being shaken' (from زَلْزِل 'to shake').

109. The measures of the *verbal adjectives* corresponding to these nouns are:

#### Possessive Adjectives.

- 110. These, as used in Urdū, are properly determinative compounds, in which the first noun governs the second in the genitive. The governing noun is generally one which conveys the idea of possession, origin, etc. The following are examples of those which occur in Urdū:
- 1) أبُو  $ab\bar{u}$ , or بُو  $b\bar{u}$ , 'father,' 'originator,' etc.: e.g. ابُو  $b\bar{u}$ , 'father,' 'originator,' etc.: e.g. ابُو  $b\bar{u}$   $b\bar{u}$  b
- نِي بَوَنَهِ نَوْنِي (nom. sing. غَوْرَةَ بَوَلَهُ كُوْرَ (nom. sing. غَوْرَةَ بَوَلَةَ بَوَلَةَ بَوَلَهُ عَلَى اللّهَ وَاللّهُ عَلَى اللّهُ عَلَى اللّهُ عَلَى اللّهُ ا

Rem The form نِي نِي عَرَ occurs most frequently in Urdū, being used

even in ordinary conversation. It is combined with Persian words also: ه. و فري هوش يقرم غري هوش يقتر أي عاده على عند عند عند المعالمة عند المعالمة المعالمعالمة المعالمة المعالمة المعالمة المعالمة المعالمة المعالمة الم

عاجِب عَلَى الله عَلَمَانَةُ عَلَيْنَةً بَالَمَةُ عَلَيْنَةً بَالَةً عَلَى الله عَلَى ا

Rem. The genitive construction is occasionally indicated by the use of the izāfat: e.g. שֹבְי הֹבׁי ṣāḥibĕ taḥht, 'possessor of the throne,' 'a king.' Such is always the case when the governing nouns are liquid arbāb (pl. of י rabb), 'lords,' 'possessors,' and ارباب خرد 'possessor;' arbāb ارباب خرد 'arbābĕ khirad, 'intelligent or wise persons;' ahlē ˈaḥl, 'wise.'

#### RELATIVE ADJECTIVES.

- 1) If the primitive noun be of the measure فَعَل , the kasra of the middle radical is changed into fatha: e.g. ملكن malakī, from ملكن 'a king.'
- 3) Final ا, ع and ع are changed into و before adding the termination ع , and kasra of the preceding letter is changed into fatha: e.g. عدوي aṣawī, from عنوي 'a staff;' معنوي 'meaning,' وهُلُوي 'meaning,' وهُلُوي 'Dehlī.'

Rem. If, however, the primitive noun consist of more than four letters, final ۱, الله متعطفي are rejected: e.g. مُعَطفيل muṣṭafī, from مُعَطفيل

b) by adding to nouns the termination خانی; as

خِسْم jismānī, 'corporeal,' from جِسْم 'body.' 'spirit.' 'spirit.' 'spirit.' 'soul.' 'soul.' 'soul.' 'ilight.' 'light.'

## ABSTRACT NOUNS OF QUALITY.

insānīyat, 'humanity,' from إنْسانِي 'human.' والنَّسانِي 'human.' الرَّبِيُّ اللَّهِيْتِ أَلَمْهُمُ اللَّهُ اللَّ

يُفِيّت kaifīyat, 'quality,' from كَيْفِي (from كَيْفِي 'how?'). سَاهِيّت māhīyat, 'the what,' 'substance,' from ماهِيّت

Rem. In a few words the Aramaic termination من مُوت بَعْ t is used to form Abstract substantives; e.g. ملك malakūt, 'royalty,' 'the world of angels,' from ملك malak, 'an angel;' malak, 'an angel;' بروت jabarūt, 'omnipotence,' from جبروت

#### Nouns of Place and Time.

- makūn o zamūn) generally take the form مَغْعَل or مَغْعَل , the initial syllable مُعْعَل ma being characteristic: e.g. مَعْعَل maktab, 'a place where writing is taught,' 'a school' (from مَدُنُ maktab, 'a place where writing is taught,' 'a school' (from مَدُنُ maktab, 'a place of egress, and ingress' (from مَدُنُ to go out,' and مناله 'to go in'); خرج majlis, 'the place where, or time when, several persons sit,' 'room,' 'assembly,' 'party' (from جلس masjid, 'a place of worship,' 'a mosque' (from مَسْجِد 'to worship').
- in performing the act expressed by a verb are called المائة asmāre ālāt. They generally have the form وفعّال , and are distinguished from the nouns of place by the kasra with which the prefixed م m is pronounced: e.g. mislāh, 'a key' (from فقال mislāh, 'a key' (from فقال mislāh, 'a key' (from فقال to open'); مقتال 'to polish');

I Forbes, and other grammarians after him, say that "the Abstract noun is formed by means of the feminine termination at or iyat," and give as examples the words hukumat, kismat, kudrat, etc. These however are infinitive nouns, or nouns of action, and though, like all verbal nouns (e.g. 'ilm, 'knowledge'), they may be used as abstract nouns, they are not "abstract nouns formed by means of the termination at;" this suffix can only form abstract substantives when added to relative adjectives. The other termination should be "yat, not iyat.

ميزان mīzūn (for مِوْزان), 'a balance or pair of scales' (from وميزان 'to weigh').

#### THE DIMINUTIVE.

ismě tasgīr) is not of common occurrence in Urdū. It generally takes the form فَعَيْل, though one or two words take the form نُعَيْل : e.g. حُسَيْن Hŏsain from مُعَيْل : huḥaira, 'a small sea,' 'a lake,' from حُسَيْن baḥr, 'a sea.'

#### GENDER.

- 116. The most usual termination by the mere addition of which to masculines (chiefly adjectives) feminines are formed, is  $\ddot{s} = at$ , which in Urdū is changed into  $\ddot{s} = at$ . e.g. الله wālida, 'mother,' from الله wālid, 'father,' الله wālika, 'queen,' from الله malika, 'king;' عظيم kādira, from علي kādir, 'powerful,' عظيم 'azīma, from علي 'azīma, from علي 'azīma, 'great;' عظيم moʻallima, 'a schoolmistress,' from معلم "at tacher or schoolmaster.'
- الْعَلَى when they have the superlative signification, form the feminine after the measure الْمَرِيلُ : e.g. الْمَيْرُ kubrā, from الْمَيْرُ akbar, 'greatest,' أَوْلِيلُ أَلِيلُولُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ

## NUMBER.

- 118. Arabic nouns have three numbers, the singular, dual, and plural.
  - 119. The dual is formed by adding the termination

ان a book.' کتابان kitābāni, 'two books,' کتاب 'a book.'

- 120. The plurals are of two kinds. The one, which has only a single form, is called جمنے علام jam'ĕ sālim, 'the complete or entire plural,' because all the vowels and consonants of the singular are retained in it. The other, which has various forms, is called جمنے تکسیر jam'ĕ taksīr, 'the broken plural,' because it is more or less altered from the singular by the addition or clision of consonants, or the change of vowels.
- 122. The following is an example of the declension of a masculine noun.

Rem. The genitive singular does not occur in Urdū. The accusative, with the tanwīn, frequently occurs, but always as an adverb. The final vowel of the nominative is always dropped.

123. The Urdū borrows from the Arabic, not only the various plural forms, but also its *dual*. But the terminations of the dual and the regular masculine plural are

always those of the Arabic accusative case, with the final vowels dropped: e.g. جانِبين jānibain, 'two or both sides,' from جانِب 'side;' بالدَين 'father;' بالذِين 'father;' بالذِين 'father;' بالذِين 'beholding;' بالزين 'beholding;' ناظِر beholding;' ناظِر 'the last.'

124. The termination  $\exists t = \bar{a}t$ , of the regular plural of feminine nouns in Arabic, with the final vowel dropped, is also used in Urdū. It may be added: 1) to verbal nouns of any measure, and either gender: e.g.

كمالت كمالت له kamālāt, 'perfections,' from the masc. كمالات له kamālāt, 'salutations,' ,, fem. تسليمات taslīmāt, 'salutations,' ,, masc. إنْ الْخُراجات الْخُراجات ikhrājāt, 'disbursements,' ,, masc. إنْ الْخُراجات iṣtilāḥāt, 'technicalities,' ,, fem. ومُطِلاحات iṣtilāḥ.

2) To verbal adjectives which are used in the plural as substantives: e.g.

'being.' كائينات 'being.' مخىلوق (being.' مخىلوق 'ma<u>kh</u>lūkūt, 'creatures,' مخىلوق (created.' مَوْجُود (found,' 'existing.' مَوْجُود ات

occasionally added ; e.g. صِفَاتِين sifaten, from صِفْت sifat, ' an attribute or quality.'

125. The *broken plurals* of the Arabic are of frequent occurrence, and are found in a variety of forms. The most important of these forms are:

1) اَنْعَال Singular triliterals of all forms may take this plural: e.g.

SINGULAR.	~ PLURAL.
jism, 'body,'	ajsām. اجسام
hukm, 'an order,'	احكام aḥkām.
. wakt, 'time.'	auķāt. آوقات
شيأ shai (from شيأ), 'a thing,'	اشيا ashyā.
<u>kh</u> abar, 'information,' 'news,'	a <u>kh</u> bār. اخبار

Triliterals in which the second radical (originally , or appears under the form i, restore the original radical in the plural: e.g.

A few verbal adjectives of the measures فَعِيل and فَعِيل and فَعِيل and فَعِيل الله take this form in the plural: e.g.

2) فُعُول —The singular is generally a triliteral of one of the measures وَعَلَ مِنْكُلُ مِنْكُلُ لِنَّكُلُ عَلَى وَعَلَى وَعَلَى وَعَلَى وَعَلَى وَعَلَى وَعَلَى وَعَلَى عَلَى وَعَلَى وَعَلَى وَعَلَى وَعَلَى وَعَلَى وَعَلَى وَعَلَى عَلَى وَعَلَى عَلَى عَلَى وَعَلَى عَلَى وَعَلَى وَعَل

amr, 'an affair,'	umūr. أمور
الم 'science,'	 'ulūm. عُلُومِ
burj, 'a tower,'	burūj. بُرُوج
asad, 'a lion,'	أَسُونُ اللهُ عَلَى اللهُ اللهُ اللهُ اللهُ عَلَى اللهُ عَلَى اللهُ عَلَى اللهُ عَلَى اللهُ عَلَى اللهُ عَلَى
malik, 'a king,'	mulūk.

A few verbal adjectives of the measure فاعِل may take this form of plural: e.g.

3). الخياب This form is commonly used for the plural of verbal adjectives of the measure فعيل when they apply to rational beings, and have not a passive signification, nor are derived from verbs of which the second and third radicals are identical. Some masculine adjectives of the measure فاعل (with the same restrictions as above) also take this form for the plural: e.g.

This form is commonly used for the plural of masculine adjectives of the measure فعيل, applicable to rational beings, and derived mostly from verbs of which the second and third radicals are identical, or the third radical is, or e.g.

5) نَعْلَ لَ فَعُل مِ Erriliterals of the measures نَعْلَ لَمْ فَعُل مِنْ فَعَل and فَعْلَة may take this form of plural: e.g.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL,
gaub, 'a robe,'	يْياب siyāb.
baḥr, 'the sea,'	biḥār. حار
jabal, 'a hill,'	jibāl.
rajul, 'a man,'	rijāl. رُجال
خصلت <u>kh</u> aşlat, 'a habit,'	<u>kh</u> iṣāl.
تُعمه ruķ'a, 'a scrap of paper,'	'a letter,' قاع riķā'.

6) نَعَال This form is used for the plural of verbal adjectives of the measure فاعل not derived from verbs of which the third radical is و و ; as

7) انعلنه —A form used for the plural of quadriliterals of which the antepenult letter is quiescent (a long vowel), especially nouns of the measures نعال عمل and verbal adjectives of the measure فعيل derived from verbs of which the second and third radicals are identical, or the third radical is , or ي e.g.

ي عال عيم عيم عيم عيم يعمل عيم	ازمينة azmina.
dawā, 'medicine,'	لكويك adwiya.
miṣāl, 'example,'	disol amsila.
غمود 'amūd, 'a pillar,'	عمده اعمده اعمده
بيب ḥabīb, 'dear,'	احبيه ahibba (for مبية).
دِلَيَل dalīl, ' proof,'	نا دُلِله adilla (for اذَلِله).

Rem. Form أَفْعَلَا (No. 4) is perhaps more commonly employed for the plural of adjectives of the measure فُعِيل.

8) فَعَالِيل —This form is used for the plural of quadriliterals (all originally feminine) of which the third letter

is servile or quiescent (a long vowel), whether they have the feminine termination (-) or not: e.g.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
jazīra, 'an island,'	jaza'ir. جزائِر
بَعْيَقت ḥaķīķat, 'reality,'	بَق بُمْهُ مِنْ مُعَالِّق بُمْهُ مُعَالِّق بُمْهُ مُعَالِّق بُمْهُ مُعَالِّق بُمْهُ مُعَالِّق بُمْعُ
ال غيل <u>kh</u> iṣāl, 'habits,'	خصائِل خصائِل <u>kh</u> aṣā'il.
رساله risāla, 'a short treatise,'	rasā'il. رساؤل
shamāl, 'the north wind,' شمال	'disposition,' شمائِل shamā'il.
دليل dalīl, 'proof,'	دلائِل dalā'il.

Rem. The form دلائل is said by some grammarians to be the plural not of دليل , but of دليل ; but as dalīl is feminine, its plural is very properly dalā'il. The lexicons also give غرائب 'ajā'ib, and غرائب garā'ib as the plurals of غريب 'ajīb, غريب garīb; but these are, properly speaking, the plurals of the feminine forms غريبة garība.

9) فَوَاعِل This is a common form of plural for substantives and adjectives of the measures فاعِلَه and فأعِل : e.g.

Rem. The plural of Persian nouns also sometimes takes this form ; e.g. كَوْلَغُدُ kawāgiz, from كَاغُذُ kāgaz, 'paper.'

This form is used for the plural of quadriliteral substantives and adjectives (final s or not being counted as a letter), the consonants of which are all

radical, or which are formed from triliteral roots by prefixing 1,  $\omega$ , or  $\rho$ , which are treated as radical letters: e.g.

singulan.

plural.

plural.

pagé jauhar, 'a gem,'

pawāhir.

pakārib.

pakārib.

pakābir.

pakābir.

pakābir.

pagāriba, 'experience,'

pagārib.

11) نکالیل The singulars are quinquiliteral substantives or adjectives (final a or a not included), of which the penultimate letter is a long vowel  $(\bar{a}, \bar{u}, \text{ or } \bar{\imath})$ : e.g.

ه مسلطين المسلطين ا

Rem. The above forms are such as commonly occur in Urdū. Others of less frequent occurrence are:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The first radical of the word  $t\bar{a}r\bar{r}k\underline{h}$  is alif with hamza, and when this is preceded by fatha and followed by an alif of prolongation, it passes into  $w\bar{a}'o$ ; hence the plural form  $tav\bar{a}r\bar{r}k\underline{h}$  in lieu of  $ta'\bar{a}r\bar{r}k\underline{h}$ .

- e). فَعَلَة .—This is used to form the plural of verbal adjectives of the measure فَاعِل denoting rational beings, and not derived from verbs having or or for the third radical: eg. طالب talaba, 'students,' 'pupils,' from جاهل talib; طالب jahala, 'ignorant persons,' from جاهل jāhil.
- d). فَعَلَمَة —The singulars are verbal adjectives of the form فَعَلَمَة . denoting rational beings, and derived from verbs having و for the third radical: e g. قُصات , 'judges,' from قاضِي , 'judges,' from قاضِي wulāt (for وُلَيَت , 'governors,' from والى walāt.
- e). فَعَالَ مَ فَعَالَ لَهِ The singulars usually have the forms فِعَلَهُ وَوَعَلَهُ وَعَلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعَلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعَلَمُ وَعَلَمُ وَعَلَمُ وَعِلَمُ عَلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعَلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ عَلَمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلَمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلِمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلَمُ مِعِمْ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلِمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلْمُ وَعِلِمُ وَعِلِمُ وَعِ
- f). آفَعُل —The singular is generally a noun of one of the measures —قَعْل مَا وَعِمْل مَا فَعْل وَعَمْل مَعْل اللهِ عَمْل مَا فَعْل مَ
- h). وَعَلَىٰ \_ The singular is generally of the measure وَعَلَىٰ \_ The singular is generally of the measure وَعَلَىٰ \_ or اعْلَىٰ : e.g. وَعَلَىٰ fatāwī, 'judicial replies,' from اعْلَىٰ a'ālī, 'the upper or highest parts,' from اعْلَىٰ a'lā. Similarly اهْالِي ahālī, from اعْلَىٰ ahī, 'people:'
- i). نَعَالِكُ Used to form the plural of substantives and adjectives of four, five, or more letters (principally words foreign to the Arabic), of which the penultimate letter is a long vowel: e.g. هالئله malā'ika,

'angels,' from ملك malak (for ملك ), 'an angel;' فلاسِفه falūsifa,
'philosophers,' from فَيْلسُوف failasūf.

126. From the preceding examples it is evident that one singular may have several forms of the broken plural, and even a sound or regular plural besides. In such cases, if the singular has several meanings, each of them often has a plural form peculiar to it. For example, in the former sense the broken plural is usually buyūt, in the latter abyūt.

127. The broken plurals, being properly collective nouns, or singulars with a collective signification, often have regular plurals formed from them by the addition of the Arabic termination  $= \bar{a}t$ , or the plural terminations of the Hindī: e.g. بَيُوتات buyūtāt, 'families,' 'household expenses; واهرات 'jawāhirāt, 'jewels: امراؤل كو 'marā'onko, 'to nobles;' - hukkāmon-se, 'from those in authority.' For the same reason broken plurals are not necessarily of the same gender as the singulars from which they are formed; thus, of the feminine word deruf, 'a side,' the plural اطراف atrāf is masculine, and of the masculine word وقت wakt, 'time,' the plural آوقات aukāt is feminine. Moreover, in one or two instances these plurals are treated as singular in Urdū: e.g. ميرا احوال merā aḥwāl, 'my circumstances, or case;' جارت كا اسباب tijūrat-kā asbāb, 'trading commodities;' آپ كا الطاف أيساهَى āp-kā allāf aisā, 'Your majesty's kindness is (favours are) such.' The words asbab and altaf, however, are also treated as plurals.

Rem. The usage of the two great centres of Urdū-Dehlī and Lucknow-differs somewhat in respect of these broken plurals; some

words being treated as singular in Dehlī, and plural in Lucknow. For example, the word جواهر jawāhir, is frequently used as a singular in the Bāq-o-bahār, but Lucknow authors always use it as a plural.

#### THE NUMERALS.

128. The Arabic numerals are occasionally used in Urdū, but rarely beyond ten or twelve.

#### THE CARDINAL NUMBERS.

129. The cardinals from one to ten are:

	MASC.	FEM.	MASC.	FEM.
, (	احد ا aḥad, wāḥid,	احدى أحدى المارة.	5. Luni khamsa,	<u>kh</u> ams.
1.	wāḥid, واحِد	saple wāḥida.	6. بيتّه sitta,	sitt. سِت
0	اِثْنان isnān,	إِنْمَانِ iṣnān.	7. den saba.	_
26.	ignan,	ينان sinān.	8. ثمانِيَه samāniya,	***
	يثلاثه يتلاثه ealāṣa,	ُ يَعْ عَلَاث عَلَاث يَعْ عَلَاث ا	9. نسعه <i>tis'a</i> ,	.'tis تسع
4.	اربعه arba'a,	arba'.	ارد. عشره 'ashara,	. ashr عشر

The numbers from eleven to nineteen are formed by prefixing the units to the ten; as احد عشر ahad 'ashar, 'eleven,' etc.

## THE ORDINAL NUMBERS.

130. The ordinals from the second to the tenth take the form فاعل, the radical letters being the same as in the eardinals: e.g. ثالِث 'awwal, 'first,' ثالِث 'sānī, 'second,' ثالِث 'sāliṣ, 'third,' and so on. The feminines are formed by adding the termination عند to the masculine; as ثالِث sāliṣā, 'third;' the word الله awwal however, being of the measure انتعل, and having the superlative signification, takes for its feminine رائعل المالة (§ 117).

131. The ordinals from the twelfth to the nineteenth inclusive are formed by adding the cardinal number شمر 'ten' to the preceding ordinals; the eleventh is formed by prefixing the word حادِي عشر to the cardinal عشر: e.g. مشر بقشر بقشر 'sānī 'ashar, 'eleventh,' etc.

### DISTRIBUTIVE NUMERALS.

132. Arabic Distributives are not common in Urdū, and of the three measures used in Arabic, one alone is to be found; viz. نَعْن : e.g. ثلاث sulās, 'by threes.'

#### MULTIPLICATIVES.

are expressed by the Passive Participle of the second form, derived from the cardinal numbers: e.g. شفر musannā, 'double,' 'a duplicate;' شنت musallas, 'threefold,' 'triple,' 'three-sided;' أشرت murabba', 'fourfold,' 'square.' Single or simple is expressed by مُقْرَد mufrad, the pass. part. of the fourth form.

## FRACTIONAL NUMBERS.

134. The fractions from a third up to a tenth are expressed by words of the measures فَعُلُ or فَعُلُ derived from the cardinals: e.g. فَكُنُ عَلَى suls, 'a third,' بُنِي rub', 'a fourth,' خَمْس khums, 'a fifth,' etc. A half is خَمْس

# v. The Personal Pronouns (ممير zamīr).

135. The Personal Pronouns are two in number; namely main, 'I,' and تُر tū, or تَنِين tain, 'thou;' the form تَيْن however, though still current in Hindī, has become obsolete in Urdū. The place of the pronoun of the third person is supplied by the Demonstrative pronouns, chiefly by the Remote Demonstrative s', woh.

136. The personal pronouns present certain peculiarities of declension. The Formative singular of the first person is and mujh; that of the second is tujh; the Agent and Genitive cases are generally formed from the Nominative: and the adjective affix  $\[ \[ \] k\bar{a}, \]$  which is used to form the genitive of nouns, is changed to 1,  $r\bar{a}$ , which in the plural has the connecting vowel  $\bar{a}$  prefixed to it. The plural Formatives are derived from the plural nominatives, by the addition of بر on, or, in the second person, هوں hamon; e.g. nom. pl. هم hamon, 'we,' Form. pl. هم hamon; nom. pl. تُر tum, 'you,' Form. pl. تُرميون tumhon; but the termination on is now always dropped, and the h of the termination hon is seldom used, except in the genitive, and the additional form of the dative case. This additional form ends in the singular in \_\_ e, and in the plural in \_\_ e en, which last termination is always added to the contracted Formative tumh.

Rem. The pronominal forms are clearly traccable to the Präkrit:  $e\,g.$ 

have observed above, contractions of همون hamon and نسمون tumbon. So in Prākrit we find अमह amha, as well as अमहाणं amhānan, for the genitive. The dative forms ممن hamen, etc., would appear to be but varieties of the Formative.

## 137. The personal pronouns are thus declined:

FIRST PERSON. main, 'I.' SINGULAR. Nom. مين main, 'I.' ham, 'we.' Agent مين ني main ne, 'by me.' نم نے ham-ne, 'by us.' Gen. \me-ra, 'my,' 'of me.' ham-ārā, 'our,' of us.' ham (for هموی hamon). Form. es mujh. Dat. ( mujh-ko, or to me,' ham-ko, or to us, 'us.' Act. ( mujhe, ) 'me.' Abl. \_ 25 mujh-se, from, by, me.' ham-se, 'from, by, us.' Loc. مین ـ پر mujh men, -par, ار میں میں میں اس ham-men, -par, 'in, on, us.' 'in, on, me.'

SECOND PERSON.

 Rem. a. The pronoun of the second person has no vocative case. The expression  $\hat{\vec{j}}$  at  $t\bar{u}$  is only heard from the lips of Englishmen, or native Christians, who have learned it from the missionaries.

Rem. b. The forms المارة الما

Rem. c. The Formatives جَاءُ سَهِمُ اللهُ اللهُ

138. The addition of the particle هِي  $h\bar{\imath}$  (pl. هِي  $h\bar{\imath}n$ ) to the pronouns gives them greater force, or, in some way, emphasizes them: e.g. ميرا هِي  $main-h\bar{\imath}$ , 'I,' هيرا هي  $mer\bar{u}-h\bar{\imath}$ , 'mine,' 'mine alone.'

VI. THE DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUN (إِنْسُمُ إِشَارِة).

139. The Proximate Demonstrative (اشارهٔ قریب ishāra'ĕ karīb) is په yĕh, 'this,' nom. pl. په yĕh, or په ye; the

Remote Demonstrative (في عيد ishāra'ĕ ba'īd) is s, woh, nom. pl. s, wo, or e, we. Both are used for the pronoun of the third person, but the remote demonstrative is the one more commonly employed.

Rem. The pronoun July yeh (Hindī yah) is derived from the Sanskrit t i; s, woh (Hindī wah, Panjabī uh, Sindhī hū), probably from the Sanskrit \ sva (see Bopp's Comp. Grammar, § 341). The Formatives are the contracted genitives (singular) of the Prākrit, with the initial vowel a of the genitive affix changed to i: e.g. إس = ग्रस assa= Sanskrit अस asya. In the old Formative wis, a similar change of vowel occurs.

## 140. The demonstratives are declined as follows:

SINGULAR.

Nom. ي yěh, 'this,' 'he,' 'she,' 'it.' يب يول yěh, or ye, 'these,' 'they.'

Form. إس is.

inhon-ne, or in-ne, وان نے \_ إن نے \_ اور نے \_ اور نے \_ اور نے \_ \*إن نے \_ \*إن نے \_ \* in-ne, 'by him,' etc.

Gen. السَّا is kā, 'of this,' his,' etc.

Dat. and (انگوا - انگوا - انگ

Abl. اِس سے is-se, 'from, with, اِس نے in-se, 'from these,' etc. by, this,' etc.

Loc. اِن صین - پر is-men, -par, اِن صین - پر in on this,' etc. 'in, on, this,' etc.

! inhon, inh, or in انه \_ إنه \_ إن

'by thee,' etc.

| Wil in-kā, 'of these,' 'their,' etc. to them,' etc. إِنْكُوا ـ \* إِنْهِينٍ)

## s, woh, 'that,' 'he,' 'she,' 'it.'

SINGULAR.

Nom. عُرُ wǒh, 'that, he,' etc.

Form. ساُ us.

Agent غَنَ اللهُ عَنَ اللهُ عَنَ اللهُ اللهُ عَنَ اللهُ الله

141. The forms marked with an asterisk can only be used when the demonstratives are employed as personal pronouns. As adjectives the demonstratives cannot be said to take any postpositions after them beyond those which are added to the substantives they define; in other words, they have but two forms, the Nominative and the [اس آدمِي كو .rormative: e.g. أس آدمِي كو us admi-ko, 'to that man,' is kitūb men, 'in this book.' As adjectives کِتاب میں moreover the demonstratives may also take the various nominative forms in the accusative: e.g. به بات سُنگر yěh bat sunkar, 'having heard this matter.' As regards the Formatives inh inh it may is inhon and unhon, it may be observed that modern usage restricts the shorter forms to the Dative ending in or en and the longer to the Agent case. The forms in and un of the singular Agent are obtained by assimilating the s of is and us to the n of the postposition in ne, and must not be confounded with the plural Formatives in and un, which may be used in polite speech in any case of the singular in place of is and us; but where marked respect is to be indicated, the forms inhon and unhon-ne are employed for the third person singular in the Agent case.

Rem. a. Forms now obsolete or rare are: a) سنة and وس win, as the Formatives of s, in place of أسكة تثين (b; أن ske ta'īn and uske ta'īn, etc., for the dative and accusative of both pronouns.

Rem. b. The Formatives of s' with are commonly written (pronounced however us, un), in order to distinguish them from the Formatives of  $y \in h$ , as, in the absence of vowel points, the two are likely to be confounded.

Rem. c. The plural forms , and are preferred by the Musalmans of Northern India, and Urdū scholars generally, to the Hindī forms , ye and eye.

143. Like the demonstrative پي yĕh are declined:

jo or جُون jaun, 'who,' 'which,' 'what,' 'he who,' etc.

Rem. The repetition of the relative pronoun gives it an indefinite, or a distributive signification: e.g.  $\neq jo jo$ , 'whatever,' Formative jis jis.

SINGULAR. منو or تون منو or تون المعلق so or taun. المعلق so or taun. المعلق المعلق so or taun. المعلق المعلق so or taun. المعلق so or

Rem. The correlative generally accompanies the relative as its complement; as جو چڙهيگا سو گريگا o charhegā so giregā, 'he who climbs will fall' (lit. 'whoever climbs, he will fall'). Modern usage prefers the pronoun عنو so in the place of the correlative. When the relative is repeated, so also is the correlative.

IX. THE INTERROGATIVE (إِسْمِ إِسْتِفْهَامِ). kaun 'who?' 'what?' 'which?'

Nom. کون kaun. کون kaun. کون kaun. کون kaun. آجنه په کون kis (and, for the Agent, کونه په په په kin, kin, kinh, or kinhon.

Rem. a. The forms marked with an asterisk cannot be employed when these pronouns are used as adjectives. In poetry, the interrogative, when used adjectively, occasionally employs the nominative (کُون) for the Formative.

Rem. b. The pronoun جو the Prākrit जो jo, = Sanskrit यः yah; jaun = P. जं jam (the acc. of jo); مو so = P. सो so; خون P. तं tam (the acc. of so). Similarly کُون kaun = कं kam, the acc. of the Sanskrit किम kim. The Formatives are the Prākrit genitives with the feminine bases, i.e. with the vowel a changed to i: e.g. إن ين jis = P. gen. sing. जस्स jassa = S. यस yasya; إن jin = P. gen. pl. जाएं jāṇam.

144. The interrogative گوی kaun is applicable to both persons and things. A second interrogative pronoun کیا kyā, 'what?' is applicable to things only. It has no plural: in the singular it is declined as follows:

# ليا kyā, 'what?'

Nom. \( \sum kyā.\) Formative \( \sum kāhe.\)

The Formative کوله kāhe however is now rarely used, except in the genitive and dative cases, the Formative کس kis of the interrogative کوله kaun being generally used instead. The genitive کوله کاله که kāhe-kā has the signification of 'of what (thing, or material?),' which however is more generally expressed by کس چیزکا kis chīz-kā. The dative کوله kāhe-ko always signifies, 'for what?' 'why?' and even this is more commonly expressed in Urdū by the interrogative adverbs کس دانسکه kis-wāste, and کیس دانسکه kyon.

Rem. a. Like the English 'what,' کیا کرتا کی kyā may be used to express indignation, surprise, etc.; e.g. کیا کرتا کی kyā kartā hai, 'what art thou doing!' کیا جواندری kyā jawān-mardī, 'what valour or generosity!' In some instances it has the signification of 'how;' as  $ky\bar{a}$   $kh\bar{a}b$ , 'how excellent!' It may also be repeated, as is the English 'what,' to connect sentences, or to convey a partitive signification. (See Syntax.)

Rem. b. The interrogative کیا kyā (for kiā) is derived from the Sanskrit কিম kim: the form کا نے kāhe is properly the Formative of the Hindī interrogative করা kahā, 'what?' which would appear to be derived from the Sanskrit কা: kah.

# X. THE INDEFINITE PRONOUNS (اسمائه تنگیر).

145. The Indefinite pronouns are of two kinds, simple and compound. The simple indefinite pronouns are كوئي kōī, 'some one,' 'some,' 'any,' 'a certain,' and خُجيهُ kuchh, 'some,' 'something,' 'any,' 'a few,' etc.

146. The pronoun کوئي ko'ī, is declined in the singular only; thus—

Sing. Nom. کِسُو ko'ī, 'some,' etc. Formative کِسِي kisī, or کِسُو kisū.

The Formative کِسُو kisū, however, is not so generally used at the present time as کِسِي kisī, which is applied to things as well as persons: e.g. کِسِي کِتاب میں kisī kilūb-men, 'in some book.'

The pronoun kuchh is indeclinable.

Rem. b. In poetry the Formative of کوئی ko'ī as an adjective is occasionally identical with the nominative: e.g. کو جا کو کوئی در می کو جیا جاوئگا mujh-se mat jī-ko lagā'o ki nahīn rahne-kā; main musāfir hūn, ko'ī din-ko chalā-jā'āngā, 'Sct not your heart on me' (lit. 'unite not your soul with me'); 'I shall not stay; I am a traveller, some day I shall depart.'

somewhat: '3) by repetition and insertion of the negative نه na: e.g. کوئي نه کوئي نه کوئي د کوئي د

Rem. The phrase جِيْ لَا جِيْ kuchh-kā kuchh is used to signify 'something very or quite different.'

148. By placing the negative substantive verb نېيى nahūn after the simple indefinite pronouns we have كوئي koʻī nahūn, 'it is, or there is, no one or nobody,' نېيى kuchh nahūn, 'it is nothing.'

Rem. The word نبيس is both a negative particle and a negative substantive verb = نه كوئي نبيس na hai, and as a verb it occurs at the end of a sentence: e.g. كوئي نبيس أيل ko'ī nahīn ayā, 'anyone did not come,' i.e. 'no one came.' The same distinction is found in the sister dialects: e.g. Sindhī كوني konhe = كوني konhe كوني

149. Compound indefinite pronouns are commonly formed by combining the simple indefinites with the relative  $j\sigma$ , or one of the pronominal adjectives  $j\sigma$ , 'other,'  $d\bar{u}sr\bar{u}$ , 'other,' aur, 'other,' aur, 'other,' aur, 'other,' aur, 'other,'

The compounds with کوئی ko'ī are declinable: e.g.

The compounds with significantly kuchh are indeclinable.

sab kuchh, 'what all,' 'everything.' مو کُیءِ jo kuchh, 'what all,' 'everything.' 'aur kuchh, 'something else,' برُت کُیءِ bahut kuchh, 'a great

### XI. THE REFLEXIVE PRONOUN.

deal.

150. The Reflexive pronoun is  $\bar{a}p$ , 'self,' 'myself,' 'himself,' 'I myself,' etc. It has but one form for the singular and plural, and is declined as follows:

Nom. ت قب.

Gen. (adj.) اَیْنی ap-nā (fem. ایْنی ap-nī).

Dat. and Act. ایْنی کو آیْکو apne ta'īn, apne-ko or āp-ko.

Abl. قب سے قب-se.

Loc. میں عبی عبی عبی قبی قبی قبی قبی قبی قبی میں عبی تابی کو قبی میں عبی ایک کو قبی میں عبی ایک کو تابی کو ت

Rem. a. The reflexive is combined emphatically with the other pronouns: e.g. مَيْنَ آبِ main āp, 'I myself;' مَنْ سَنَّ أَبِ wǒh āp, 'he himself;' نُم آبِ سَّ tum āp-se, 'you of yourselves' (lit. 'from or by yourselves').

Rem. b. ्रा āp = Prākrit अप्पा appā = Sanskrit आता ātmā, 'soul,'

also occurs, but only in the genitive and locative plural: e.g. but only in the genitive and locative plural: e.g.  $\bar{a}pas-k\bar{a}$ , 'of, or pertaining to, ourselves, yourselves, or themselves;'  $\bar{a}pas-men$ , 'among ourselves,' etc. The use of one or other of the personal pronouns depends on the context.

Rem. The Persian reflexive pronoun مُحُود khwud, is also commonly used in Urdū. Unlike آپ āp, however, it is generally used with the personal and demonstrative pronouns alone: e.g. مَمَن خُود main khwud, 'I mys.lf;' وي خُود we khwud, 'they themselves.' To

express the signification of the ablative عن قه من قه من قه من قب قه من قه من

152. آپ  $\bar{a}p$  is also very commonly used as the *pronomen reverentiæ*, in both the second and the third person. When so used it is declined as follows:

Nom. sing. Form. sing.  $\tilde{a}p$ , 'your honour,' 'his honour.'  $\tilde{a}p$ .

Thus it differs from the reflexive by taking for its genitive the form المن  $\bar{a}p-k\bar{a}$ , and for its dative the form alone. Like the English 'you,' though used in the singular, it is treated as a plural : e.g. آپ امبر کشن  $\bar{a}p$  amir hain, 'your honour is (lit. are) a great man,' or 'you are a great man,'  $\bar{a}p$  are  $\bar{a}p$  farmate hain, 'his honour says' (lit. 'say').

 of this slave,' and a wife is spoken of as قبرکے kabīla, 'family,' قبریک ghar-ke ādmī, 'the household or family,' etc.

### XII. RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS.

153. Reciprocal pronouns have no special form in Urdū. Reciprocity of feeling or action is expressed, as in English, by combining the pronominal adjectives ايك دُوسَرا ek, 'one,' and ايك دُوسَرا dūsrā, 'another:' e.g. Nom. ايك دُوسَرا ek dūsrā, 'each other,' one another,' Formative

154. The Possessive pronouns are the genitive cases of the personal, demonstrative, relative, interrogative, and reflexive pronouns: *e.g.* 

These are all declined like other adjectives ending in ā:
c.g. mase. ميري merā, fem. سري merī; Form. sing. mase. سري mere, Nom. and Form. pl. mase. سري mere. The pronoun ميري apnā however is more commonly used as a substitute for the possessive pronouns merā, terā, and uskā than as a distinct reflexive adjective, and when so used it always refers to the principal subject, whether this be expressed or understood: e.g. المنا سبق سنا منا apnā sabak sunā, 'repeat thy lesson,' (lit. 'cause me to, or let me, hear thy lesson');

مَيْنَ نِهَ اَيْنَا كَبُورًا بِيأَجًا main-ne apnā ghorā benchā, 'I have sold my horse' (lit. 'my horse has been sold by me').

Rem. The genitive of the adjective برا بنه nij, 'own,' is also used in Urdū as a reflexive adjective: e.g. ميرا نبخا هاتهي merā nij-kā hāthī, 'my own elephant.'

#### XIV. PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

155. Under this head may be classed such adjectives as partake more or less of the nature of pronouns. They are of two kinds; *primitive* and *derivative*. The primitive are:

ایک اولا، 'one.'

ایک dūsrā, 'another,' 'other.'

dūsrā, 'another,' 'other.'

jaur, 'other,' 'more.'

bahut, 'much,' 'many.'

baéz, ) 'some,' 'certain.'

gair, 'other' ('different').

سب sab, 'all,' 'every one.'

هر har, 'each,' 'every.'

هر fulān,

ا نالان fulāna,

ا نالان fulānā,

ا نالان ka'ī,

ا نالان kail,' 'the whole.'

ا نالان kail, 'how many?'

156. The *derivatives* are such adjectives as are formed from the original pronominal bases by means of the terminations  $\ddot{\upsilon}$   $tt\bar{a}$ ,  $\dot{\upsilon}$   $tn\bar{a}$ , and  $\dot{\upsilon}$   $s\bar{a}$ , the first two being used to form pronominal adjectives denoting measure or quantity, and the last such as denote kind or similitude. A long vowel in the base is shortened before the terminations  $tt\bar{a}$  and  $tn\bar{a}$  are added, and a short vowel in the base is lengthened to e or ai (in Urd $\bar{u}$  generally to ai) before the termination  $s\bar{a}$  is added: e.g.

PRONOMINAL BASES.	ADJECTIVES OF QUANTITY.	ADJECTIVES OF KIND, ETC.
ī, i or č.	( كَا ittā (ĕttā), ) 'this لَكَا itnā (ĕtnā), ) much.'	آيسا aisā, 'of this kind,' 'like this,' 'such.'
ū or wa.	اَثَا uttā, عَمَّا الْمَا ا	waisā, 'of that kind,' ' like that.'
ji (fem. of $ja$ ,	( نج jittā (jěttā), ) 'as	jaisā, 'of which
the base of $jo$ ).	أ بنا عند jitnā (jětnā), much.'	kind,' 'like which.'
ti (fem. of the	( تِتَّا tittā (těttā), ) 'so	تَيسا تَعْسا taisā, 'of what kind,'
base of so).	(titnā (tětnā), much.' تِتْنا اللهِ titnā (tětnā)	'like that.'
ki (fem. of	( ) kittā (kĕttā), ) 'how	kaisā, 'of what
base of $ka$ ).	kitnā (kětnā), much.'	kind?' 'like what?'

Rem. Although these pronominal adjectives may be conveniently described as formed in the manner mentioned above, there can be little doubt of their being really modifications of Prākrit forms: e.g. হৈ kittā, = Prākrit কালিয় kēttia = Sanskrit কিবাৰ kiyat: in হৈ kitnā the second t is, perhaps for the sake of euphony, changed into n. Similarly aisā = P. एरिसो ĕriso = S. ইহুম īdriśa; হিলাই kaisā = केरिसो kēriso = S. কাহুম kīdriśa. By the elision of the syllable ri in the Prākrit forms, are obtained the common Hindī forms esā and kesā, the short vowel ĕ of the Prākrit being lengthened.

# CHAPTER III.

# THE VERB (فِعْل).

158. Transitive verbs have two Voices, viz. the Active and the Passive. The other verbal forms, such as Mood, etc., it will be more convenient to notice after we have spoken of the nouns and adjectives which are derived from the verbal root.

159. The root or crude form of a verb is found in the second person singular of the Imperative. It is in many cases used as an abstract verbal noun.

160. The verbal nouns are two in number:—

# 1). THE INFINITIVE OR GERUND ( ••),

which is formed by adding to the verbal root the termination  $\upsilon n\bar{a}$ : e.g. Root = chal, 'to move,' etc., Infinitive  $chal - n\bar{a}$ , 'to move or go,' 'moving or going.' The infinitive is the form in which verbs are usually given in

Dictionaries, so that the verbal root may always be known by dropping the termination  $\cup$   $n\bar{a}$ .

Rem. In most instances the infinitive is, no doubt, the Sanskrit verbal noun ending in ana, modified, it may be, by the laws of transformation obtaining in the Prākrits. At the same time it is evident that the Sanskrit affix ana alone has been borrowed, and changed to nā; for we find it joined to Persian and Arabic verbal nouns, and occasionally to other nouns and adjectives: e.g. the arād-nā, 'to purchase' (from the Persian عند في badat-nā, 'to change or exchange' (from the Arabic بنيانا; (بدل garmā-nā, 'to get warm or heated' (from ينيانا pānī, 'water'). It may be observed also that the Sanskrit verbal noun, with the final vowel dropped, is occasionally employed in Urdū (in Hindī frequently) as an abstract noun: e.g. 'chalan, 'going,' 'gait,' 'conduct,' etc.

# 2). The Noun of Agency (إلَّهُم فَاعِل),

which is also a Future Active Participle. It is formed by adding to the *inflected* infinitive, the termination wala. wala: e.g. wala: e.g. wala: wala:

Rem. Instead of  $N_j$  wālā, the affix also hār or shārā is occasionally used, but more commonly in Hindī than in Urdū. In the former of these dialects it is also frequently added to the Sanskrit form of the verbal noun; as maran-hār, 'about to die,' or 'one who is about to die.' The affix wālā corresponds to the Sanskrit  $\overline{a}$  vala; hārā, to the Sanskrit  $\overline{a}$  which, according to Dr. Trumpp, is first changed to  $kh\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ , and thence, by elision of k, to  $h\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ .

The noun of agency is declined like other adjectives ending in  $\bar{a}$  (§ 45).

- 161. The infinitive as a gerund is used in the singular only, and is declined like masculine nouns ending in  $1 \bar{a}$  (§ 42). But it is also frequently used as a *gerundive*, and then agrees with its substantive in gender and number.
- 162. The Participles are *three* in number; namely the Imperfect, Perfect, and Past Conjunctive. They are all derived from the verbal root.

is formed by adding to the root the termination  $\forall t\bar{a}$ ; as  $chal - t\bar{u}$ , 'moving,' 'going.'

Rem. The affix U tā corresponds to the affix সান্ at of the Sanskrit present participle. In Hindī the termination is at (strictly speaking, perhaps, atu, but the final vowel is never heard in pronunciation): e.g. বৰন chalat = chal-tä.

## 165. The Perfect Participle

is formed by adding to the verbal root the termination != $\bar{a}$ : in its formation the following rules are to be observed:

1) If the root ends in a consonant, the termination is in most cases added without any change being made; as

الله chal-ā, 'moved or gone.' But if the root consist of two short syllables, the vowel of the last being fatha, this vowel is generally elided in the participle: e.g. بَدُلا badl-ā, 'exchanged,' from نِكلا badal; نِكلا nikl-ā, 'come out,' from نِكلا nikal (see § 34, Rem. c.).

- 2) If the root end in one of the vowels  $1 = \bar{u}$  or 0, a euphonic y is inserted between it and the termination; as  $y = b \partial y \bar{a}$ , 'eaten' (root  $y = b \partial y \bar{a}$ , 'sown' (root  $y = b \partial y$ ).

# 166. The following participles are irregular:

PERF. PART.	INFINITIVE.	
لَيْكِ kiyā, 'done.'	کرنا kar-nā, 'to do.'	
ي diyā, 'given.'	دينا de-nā, 'to give.'	
لَيْ liyā, 'taken.'	le-nā, 'to take.'	
امُنْ mū'ā, 'dead.'	mar-nā, 'to die.'	
ير gayā, 'gone.'	Ul> jā-nā, 'to go.'	
الله الله الله الله الله الله الله الله	هونا ho-nā, 'to be,' etc.	

But the forms  $\lambda kar\bar{u}$ , 'done,' and  $\lambda mar\bar{u}$ , 'dead,' are also occasionally used; and the form  $\lambda j\bar{u}y\bar{u}$  is that invariably used in compounds, such as  $\lambda j\bar{u}y\bar{u}$  is that invariably used in compounds, such as  $\lambda j\bar{u}y\bar{u}$   $\lambda j\bar{u}$   $\lambda j\bar{u$ 

Rem. It is incorrect to say that "the words  $karn\bar{a}$  and  $kiy\bar{a}$  are derived from kar and  $k\bar{\imath}$ , two different forms of the Sanskrit root kri, and the words  $marn\bar{a}$  and  $m\bar{u}'\bar{a}$ , from mar and  $m\bar{u}$ , two different forms of the Sanskrit root mri," etc.; for there can be little doubt that though

the affix  $\bar{a}$  (which corresponds to the Sanskrit affix ta) is used in forming perfect participles—e.g. אבי  $\underline{khar}\bar{u}d.\bar{a}$ , 'purchased,' badl- $\bar{a}$ , 'exchanged'—yet the Hindī participles are for the most part derived bodily from those of the Sanskrit (just as the infinitives are from the Sanskrit verbal noun in ana), through the medium of the Prākrit, and the change of form is due to the laws which obtain in the latter language: e.g. אוֹנע  $kiy\bar{a}$  (for  $ki\bar{a}$ ) = P. ( कि. हात krita; אוֹנע  $m\bar{u}$ ' a=P. मुजा mu' a=R मृत mr a=R a=R

Rem. The imperfect and perfect participles, when compounded with  $h\bar{u}'\bar{a}$ , may also be used as nouns: e.g.  $h\bar{u}'\bar{a}$ , merā diyā  $h\bar{u}'\bar{a}$  (and, elliptically,  $h\bar{u}'\bar{a}$ ), what has been given by (lit. of) me,' my giving or gift.'

168. The imperfect and perfect participles are declined like other adjectives ending in  $i = \bar{a}$ , with a slight difference in the feminine plural, which takes a contracted form of the nom. pl. of feminine nouns ending in  $\bar{i}$ : e.g.

MASCU	MASCULINE.		FEMININE.	
Singular.	Plural.	Singular,	Plural.	
Nominative 🔍 chalā,	عات chale.	جلِي chalī,	جلیں chalīn.	
Formative chale,	جاءِ chale.	چلي chalī,	جلیں chalīn.	

But the euphonic y of such perfect participles as  $l\bar{u}y\bar{a}$ ,  $soy\bar{a}$ , is generally dropped in all the inflected forms:

e.g. لائي  $l\bar{u}i$ , سوئيس soin. The same change takes place in the inflected mase, forms of such participles as يِيا  $piy\bar{a}$ , لائي  $diy\bar{a}:e.g$ , پيئے  $p\bar{i}'e$ ; but in the feminine the two long vowels  $\bar{i}$ ,  $\bar{i}$ , are generally contracted into one; as يي  $p\bar{i}$  for پيئى  $p\bar{i}'\bar{i}$ ; کی  $k\bar{i}$  for پیئی

169. In the compound participles formed with أَوْرُ  $h\bar{u}$ 'u, both parts of the compound are inflected in the same way, but the plural termination of the feminine is usually added to the last, غُوا, alone: e.g. چلی دُوئِیں  $chalī h\bar{u}$ 'in.

Rem. As the plural is obvious from the termination of the last part of the compound, the addition of the same termination to the first part also is unnecessary, and is now rarely made. We occasionally meet with the full plural termination  $\bar{a}\dot{n}$ , as  $chaliya\dot{n}$ , but current usage is averse to the form.

170. The addition of the emphatic particle  $k\bar{l}$  to the locative of the imperfect participle (with the postposition suppressed), gives it the force of an adverb: e.g.  $k\bar{l}$  to the chalte- $k\bar{l}$ , 'in the very act, or on the instant, of moving.'

The Past Conjunctive Participle (ماضِي معَطُوف).

171. This participle, which is indeclinable, may take the form: 1) Of the simple root; as  $\Rightarrow chal$ , 'having moved or gone; 2) of the root with the addition of one of the affixes  $\Rightarrow e$ , or  $\Rightarrow ke$ ; as  $\Rightarrow chal - e$ , or  $\Rightarrow chal - ke$ ; 3) of the root with the addition of  $\Rightarrow kar$ , or  $\Rightarrow kar - ke$  (which are themselves past conj. part. of the verb  $\Rightarrow kar - n\bar{a}$ ); as  $\Rightarrow chal - kar$ , or  $\Rightarrow chal - kar - ke$ . The affix e is seldom or never employed;  $\Rightarrow ke$  and  $\Rightarrow ke$  are those most frequently used.

Rem. a. We occasionally meet with the form کرکر kar-kar, as کرکر chal-kar-kar; this, however is now generally condemned as barbarous.

Rem. b. The conjunctive participle of the verb  $\sqrt{1}$   $\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ , to come, takes the forms  $\sqrt{1}$   $\bar{a}n$ ,  $\sqrt{1}$   $\bar{a}n$ , etc., besides the regular forms  $\sqrt{1}$   $\bar{a}kar$ , etc.

Rem. c. The affixes e and ke both spring from the Prākrit form ia of the Sanskrit affix ya, which is used to form indeclinable past participles; ia transposed = ai = e; in the case of ke, however, ia is first changed to ja, je (the form current in Sindhī), and j is then changed to k. In the first or root form of the participle the affix e is dropped.

# GENDER, NUMBER, PERSON.

172. The Urdū verb has *two* genders, the masculine and feminine; *two* numbers, the singular and plural; and three persons in each number.

173. There are *three* moods; namely the Indicative, Imperative, and Subjunctive or Conditional, which is also the Optative. The Indicative and Subjunctive will be noticed in connection with the tenses.

# THE IMPERATIVE ( amr).

174. The second person singular of the Imperative is, as has already been observed, the root or crude form of the verb. The second person plural is formed by adding to the singular the termination -o; as -chal, 'go thou,' -chal, 'go you.' It is identical with the second person plural of the Aorist, from which tense the other persons of the Imperative are taken.

 ho, 'be thou,' plural هو ho, 'be ye.' The forms عيو de'o and هيو ho'o are now regarded as provincial and barbarous.

Rem. The terminations of the Prākrit imperative are—Sing. u or a,  $\bar{a}hi$ , etc.; pl. dha or ha: the first of these is dropped in Hindī, and the plural termination ha is changed to a by elision of a and compensatory lengthening of the final vowel.

#### THE PRECATIVE.

176. There is another form of the Imperative which is properly a Precative, but which is also commonly used in polite speech for the Imperative. It is formed by adding to the verbal root the termination \_\_\_\_ iye for the singular, and iyo for the plural; as \_\_\_\_ chaliye, 'please go,' or simply 'go; chaliyo, 'go you.' But at the present time the two forms are both commonly employed in both the singular and the plural, the only difference between them being, that the form ending in iye is always used with the pronomen reverentice  $\overline{ap}$ , and usually refers to present time; whereas that ending in iyo is used with the pronouns tum, ap chalige, 'please come, or come, Sir, or Sirs;' (w) is dirakht-ke pas na jaiyo, 'near this فرخت کے باس نجائیو مرگِز اِنْکے بیتینے اور آزاد کرنے کا ';tree thou shalt not go hargiz inke bechne aur ūzād karne-kā irāda na إراده نه كيجيو kījiyo, 'never form the design of selling or setting free these (animals).' The form ending in iyo is also frequently

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Mr. Etherington (*Hindī Grammar*, p. 78) observes that it is incorrect to term the precative ending in *iyo* the plural of that ending in *iyo*, and in this opinion he is supported by native scholars; but though the opinion of these is invaluable in respect of the usage and signification of words, it is utterly untrustworthy where their origin or derivation is concerned, especially in Hindī forms. By comparison with the same form in the sister dialects—Panjābī, Sindhī, etc.—we obtain conclusive evidence of the form ending in *iyo* being originally the plural of that ending in *iyo*.

employed in benedictions and imprecations: e.g. جُدا تَمْكُو إِنْده ركجيو <u>kh</u>udā tum-ko zinda rakhiyo, 'may God preserve you alive;' إِنْده ركجيو إُور مُشْركون پر هُوجِيو <u>kh</u>udā kī lanat kā firon aur mushrikon par hūjiyo, 'God's curse on infidels and believers in a plurality of gods!'

Rem. a. The termination iye is derived from the increment ija or ijja, which is inserted between the root and the terminations in the present, imperative, and definite future of Prākrit verbs (Prākrit-Prakāśa, ed. Cowell, p. 30 of Introduction). This increment is traced by Lassen to the Sanskrit precative. In Hindī and Urdū also the Aorist frequently takes the form of the Precative for the three persons of the singular, and adds nasal n thereto for the plural: e.g. مُنْ فَعَلَى اللهُ ال

177. If the root end in  $\underline{z} = \overline{\imath}$  or e, the letter j is inserted between it and the affixes of the Precative, and majhūl e of the root is changed to the ma'ruf  $\overline{\imath}$  before the affixes are added: e.g.  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}p\overline{\imath}jiye$ , from the root  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}p\overline{\imath}$ , 'to drink;'  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}p\overline{\imath}jiye$ , from the root  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}p\overline{\imath}$ , 'to drink;'  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}p\overline{\imath}jiye$ , from the root  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}p\overline{\imath}$ , 'to give.' Instead of inserting j however, the initial i of the affixes may be dropped, and  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}y$  changed to  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}j$ ; as  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}p\overline{\imath}je$ ,  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}p\overline{\imath}jo$ ,  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}p\overline{\jmath}jo$ 

178. The precatives of the verbs هونا honā,¹ 'to be or become,' and مُوجِيه marnā, 'to die,' also insert j: e.g.

<sup>1</sup> Forbes and others after him state that "when the root ends in  $\bar{\imath}$  or  $\bar{u}$ , j is inserted for euphony," etc. But they give no example of a verbal root ending in  $\bar{u}$ , which forms its precative thus, and we doubt much whether a single example could be given, unless it be the verb  $m\bar{u}n\bar{u}$ , which is rarely if ever used. Indeed,  $m\bar{u}jiye$  and  $m\bar{u}'\bar{u}$  are generally regarded as the precative and perfect participle, not of  $min\bar{u}$ , but of  $marn\bar{u}$ . Examples of verbal roots ending in  $\bar{u}$  are  $chh\bar{u}n\bar{u}$ , 'to touch,' and  $ch\bar{u}n\bar{u}$ , 'to drip,' but these would certainly not take j in the precative: e.g.  $chh\bar{u}iye$ , not  $chh\bar{u}jiye$ . The rule would be equally incorrect if o were substituted for  $\bar{u}$ , for  $hon\bar{u}$  is the only verb of this class that forms its precative with jiye.

hūjiye, مُوحِيه mūjiye. This last, however, also takes the regular forms مريو mariye, مريو mariyo.

Rem. a. The form of the root employed in the precative, it may be observed, is generally that which occurs in the perfect participle, and hence we find kijiye, kije, kije, kijiye, as the precatives of kijiye, 'to do,' the forms kariye and kariye and kariyo, though occasionally used, being regarded as unchaste. A remarkable exception to this rule, however, is the precative kije, kije, of the verb kije, for go.'

Rem. b. The affixes بنو and بنو iyo, are frequently written iyo chali'e, or بنو iyo, are frequently written iyo chali'e, or بنو iyo, are frequently written iyo,

179. The addition of the termination  $g\bar{a}$  to the precative ending in *iye* gives it a future signification: e.g. أن ك يروي un-ke hawāle kījiyegā, 'you will be pleased to make (them) over to them.'

#### THE TENSES.

 Future Perfect or Past Potential (mūzī shakkī). Two of these tenses, viz. the Aorist¹ and the Future Perfect, are common to the Indicative and Subjunctive Moods (though the latter is rarely used in the Indicative); the rest pertain to the Indicative Mood. One tense, namely the Past Conditional or Optative, is peculiar to the Subjunctive Mood.

181. The tenses rarely used, and which the native grammarians do not even notice, need not detain the student here: they will be explained hereafter.

#### FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

- a) THE SIMPLE TENSES.
- 182. The simple tenses of the Active Voice are *three*; namely, the Aorist, the Past Absolute or Indefinite, and the Past Conditional or Optative.

## 1) THE AORIST.

183. The Aorist is the only tense that is formed by means of inflectional terminations.<sup>2</sup> These are:

¹ It is inexplicable to us how Mr. Etherington can say (Hindī Grammar, p. 76), "The so-called agric of the Hindī is not indicative at all; for it never simply asserts, except in ungrammatical patois." He must surely have repeatedly heard the expressions kyā karāā, 'What am I to do?' kahān jā'ān, 'Where shall I go?' khuāā jāne, 'God knows?' And he should have known that the agric is commonly employed in the indicative mood in proverbs: e.g. ānţ-chare kuttā kāţe, 'the dog bites (or will bite) one mounted on a camel.' To call the tense the prospective conditional is to give it a new name, which, so far from being an improvement on the old one, is calculated to mislead. The fact is, this tense is the equivalent of the Prākrit present indefinite, which (since the Sanskrit potential has disappeared from the Prākrits) also expresses some of the significations of the potential, and hence is used in both the indicative and subjunctive moods.

 $^{2}\ \mathrm{The}\ \mathrm{aorist}\ \mathrm{corresponds}\ \mathrm{to}\ \mathrm{the}\ \mathrm{present}\ \mathrm{of}\ \mathrm{the}\ \mathrm{Pr\bar{a}krit},\ \mathrm{the}\ \mathrm{personal}\ \mathrm{terminations}$  of which tense are:

\* SINGULAR.

1st person  $\bar{a}mi$  (S.  $\bar{a}mi$ ).

2nd ,, asi (S. asi).
3rd ,, a-di, a\(\begin{align\*} a\) (S. a-ti).

\*\*PLURAL.

\[
\begin{align\*} \bar{a}ma, & \bar{a}ma, & \bar{a}ma \\ ama, & \ampli m, & \ampli mah. \\ ama, & \ampli m, & \ampli

Comparing these terminations with those of the Hindi, we perceive that, in the

SINGULAR.		PLURAL	
1st person	يُ تُسُدُّ عُنْ عُنْ عُنْ عُنْ عُنْ عُنْ عُنْ عُنْ	يں – en.	
2nd ,,	ي- و.	g- 0.	
ārd "	ي — e.	.— en	

They are added to the verbal root, and are the same for both genders.

- 184. If the root end in a vowel, certain euphonic changes may be necessary before the terminations are added to it: e.g.
- 1) If the vowel be  $i = \bar{a}$ , j = 0, or  $j = \bar{i}$ , the letter j w may be inserted between it and the terminations j = e and  $j = e\bar{n}$ ; as  $j = j\bar{u} w e$ , (thou or he) 'will go;' حبویی  $j\bar{i} w e\bar{n}$ , (we or they) 'will live.' In the case of the verb 'will live.' In the case of the verb 'will honā, 'to be,' we find, moreover, that the vowels of the terminations are frequently elided, so that we have the forms: 1st person sing. هروي ho- $\bar{u}\bar{n}$ , or هروي hore, or هروي hove, or هروي ho, etc.

Rem. In Urdū, however, w is not very generally inserted, hamza between the vowels being preferred; e g. سۇي jū'ūn, جائى so'e, مۇي jū'e; and the form هورس ho'ūn is obsolete.

2) If the root end in  $\underline{c} - e$ , a euphonic w may be inserted, as in the case of the other vowels, but the usual practice is, as has been shown in the case of the imperative (§ 175) to drop the root vowel in all the persons: e.g. the agrist of  $dena_i$ , 'to give,' is  $dena_i$ , 'I give or shall give;'  $dena_i$ , (thou or he) 'will give'  $dena_i$ , (we or they) 'will give.'

.atter, the consonants have all been elided (but the letters m and n have left their mark in the form of the anusvāra or nasal), and the vowels a, i of the second and third persons sing. and the 3rd pers. pl. have coalesced into e. In the first person the vowel  $\bar{a}$  has been changed to  $\bar{n}$ , and final i has been elided. In the second person h has been elided, and a lengthened to a.

Rem. a. The personal pronouns may either precede or follow the verb, or they may be omitted. But if any stress is to be laid on the person, the proper pronoun must be expressed, and be placed before the verb.

Rem. b. The acrist frequently takes the form of the precative: e.g.  $ky\bar{a}$   $k\bar{\imath}$ -jiye, kuchh ban nah $\bar{i}$ n part $\bar{\imath}$ , what shall I do? nothing is of any avail; where  $k\bar{\imath}$ jiye= $kar\bar{u}$ n. The subject will be noticed in the Syntax.

## 2) THE PAST INDEFINITE.

185, The Past Indefinite or Absolute is formed from the perfect participle, which, in the case of an intransitive verb, is inflected to agree in gender and number with its subject or nominative; but if the verb be transitive, a passive construction is employed, the actor is put in the Agent case and the object of the action becomes the subject or nominative, with which the participle agrees in gender, etc. For example, instead of saying directly, 'the king killed a tigress,' the Urdū uses the form, 'by the king a tigress was killed' (راجائي شيرني ماري) rājā-ne shernī mārī). The same construction is employed in all such tenses of the active voice of a transitive verb as are composed of the passive participle, provided the object of the act have the nominative form; but the object may take the dative form, in which case the participle is never inflected.

Rem. This construction is derived from the Sanskrit through the Prākrit, and would appear to be preferred in Sanskrit to the active construction. In Prākrit it is very commonly employed, few traces of the Sanskrit preterite tenses remaining in the dialects thereof. The Hindī departs from the Prākrit, however, in discarding all inflectional terminations, which in the Prākrit were optionally used.

## 3) THE PAST CONDITIONAL.

186. The Past Conditional or Optative is formed from the imperfect participle, which is inflected to agree in gender and number with the subject or nominative.

Rem. This tense appears to perplex English writers on Urdū grammar greatly. It is called 'The Indefinite,' 'The Present Indefinite,' 'The Retrospective Conditional,' etc., and rendered mostly by the English present. Now the fact is, it is not a present tense at all, but a past subjunctive. The error is probably due to the fact that the present tense is sometimes used elliptically without the auxiliary, and so has the appearance of the conditional; but the two should not be confounded. The conditional was, in all probability, a compound tense originally.

### b) THE COMPOUND TENSES.

# 1) THE FUTURE.

187. The Future is formed by adding to the Aorist the participle  $\mathcal{L}g\bar{a}$  (a contraction of  $ga\bar{a}$ , whence  $gay\bar{a}$ , 'gone'), which is inflected to agree with the nominative in gender and number. The Future is therefore properly a Desiderative, or Intentional: e.g. سفن جائونگا main chalūngā, 'I shall go or move,' is literally, 'I am gone (that) I move,' i.e. 'I wish to move,' or 'I am going to move;' and hence we occasionally find it so used: e.g. مشن ديكيني چائونا  $main\ dekhūng\bar{a}$ , 'I wish to see,' 'I would see'  $main\ dekhne\ chāhtā\ hūn$ .

188. The remaining compound tenses (with the exception of the Future Perfect) are composed of the imperfect or perfect participle and the following auxiliaries, which are also used alone to express simple existence.

If the subject or nominative be feminine, نها thā takes the feminine termination: e.g. sing. تَجِين thī, pl. تَجِين thīn.

Rem. These are not "anomalous formations derived from hona," as Professor Williams calls them, for honā springs from the Sanskrit  $bh\bar{u}$ , to be or become,' the Prākrit form of which is ho or huva; whereas the forms  $\lambda b\bar{u}h$ , etc., are derived from the present tense of the Sanskrit as, 'to be:' e.g.  $h\bar{u}h = P$ . amhi = S. asmi; hai = P. asi = S. asi, and so on, the process of transformation in Hindī being analogous to that of the terminations of the aorist; h, however (into which the salso of asi, etc., is changed), being in no instance clided, but transposed. The form  $\lambda b\bar{u}$  thā is traceable to the Sanskrit root  $b\bar{u}$ , 'to stand,' which is used even in Sanskrit as a substantive verb with the sense of 'to be.'

# 2) THE PRESENT IMPERFECT.

189. The Present Imperfect is formed by adding the first of the above auxiliary tenses to the imperfect participle of a verb: e.g. masc. چِلْتَا كُون chaltā hūn, fem. چِلْتَا كُون chaltā hūn, 'I am going.'

Rem. a. The present tense is sometimes formed by adding the same auxiliary to the aorist of a verb; as چُلُوں مُوں chalūn hūn, 'I go or am going.' This form, which is properly an indefinite present, was at one period general; numerous instances of its use occur in the poets,

and it is still very common in the tract of country extending from Agra to Sindh; but in other parts of Northern India it is now seldom used, except by the uneducated.

## 3) THE PAST IMPERFECT OR CONTINUOUS.

190. This tense is formed by adding the auxiliary نبا thā to the imperfect participle of a verb: e.g. mase. مثن main chaltā thā, fem. چَلَّا تَهَا main chaltā thī, fem. چَلَّا تَهَا main chaltā thī, fem. عَلَى تَهَا الله main chaltā thī, fem. مثن چلتي تهي adding the auxiliar thī, fem. على main chaltā thī, fem. and main chaltā t

# 4) THE PROXIMATE OR PRESENT PERFECT.

 king has killed three tigresses; '(() or) with a larke-ne mujhko (or mujhe) mārā hai, 'that boy has beaten me.' When the object of the act is represented by a personal pronoun, the participle will always remain uninflected, since such pronouns admit of the dative form of the accusative alone.

# 5) THE REMOTE OR PAST PERFECT.

192. The Past Perfect is formed by adding the auxiliary عبي جلا به thā to the perfect participle of a verb: e.g. هم چلے تھے ham chalā thā, 'I had gone;' هم چلے تھے ham chalā thān, it being sufficient to add the plural termination to the auxiliary. If the verb be transitive, the same construction is employed as in the Past Absolute and Present Perfect: e.g. ممين نے تين گهوڙيا (يا گهوڙي) خريدي تهيي مهوڙيا (يا گهوڙي) خريدي تهيي main ne tīn ghoriyān (yā ghorī) kharīdī thīn, 'I had purchased three mares,' lit. 'by me three mares had been purchased.'

# 6) THE FUTURE PERFECT, OR PAST POTENTIAL.

193. This tense is formed by adding the Future of the verb هونا honā, 'to be or become,' to the perfect participle of a verb: e.g. سَمْ حِلَّا هُونَاً main chalā hūngā, 'I shall have gone,' or, more commonly, 'I may have gone.' The termination  $g\bar{u}$  of the Future is occasionally dropped, or, in other words, the Aorist of the verb honā is added to the perfect participle, and then the signification is invariably that of the Past Potential: e.g. مَمْ حَلَّا هُولِ main chalā hon, 'I may have

gone.' If the verb be transitive, the construction is the same as in the case of other tenses composed of passive participles.

Rem. It is a mistake to say that this tense "is not of very frequent occurrence," as all English writers on Hindī and Urdū grammar do. It is commonly employed, both colloquially and in writing; not however as a Future Perfect, but as a Past Potential, expressing the possibility, or uncertainty, of an act.

#### CONJUGATION.

194. We now proceed to conjugate three verbs: viz. the transitive-active verb Lew likhnā, 'to write;' the intransitive-active verb حِلْنا chalnā, 'to move or go,' and the substantive verb U. honā, 'to be.' The masculine forms alone will be given; it will therefore be borne in mind that, in the Future and all tenses composed of the imperfect and perfect participles, the final vowel  $\bar{a}$  of the sing. is changed to  $\bar{i}$  for the feminine, and the final vowel e of the plural to in. The verbal nouns and adjectives are declined like other nouns and adjectives ending in  $\bar{a}$ . The arrangement of the moods and tenses differs but slightly from that found in existing grammars; it is necessary therefore to again direct attention to the fact that the Conditional, though classed with the tenses derived from the imperfect participle, is a past tense of the subjunctive mood. The Imperative, properly speaking, consists of the second person alone, and this is all that is given; the remaining persons are identical with those of the Aorist, from which indeed they are borrowed.

# I. ROOT A likh, 'to write.'

Infinitive or Gerund, Lill likhnā, 'to write,' 'writing.'

Noun of Agency, and الكناف الألام likhne-wala, 'writer,' 'about Future Act. Participle, to write.

Imperfect, Las likhtā, 'writing.'

Perfect, Likhā, 'written.'

Progressive, النها هوا likhtā hū'ā, 'in the act of writing,' 'one who is in the act of writing.'

instant, of writing.'

### TENSES FORMED FROM THE ROOT.

## 1). THE IMPERATIVE.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

يُّم لِكَهُو لِكِهِ tū likh,¹ 'write thou.' تُم لِكَهُو tū likh,¹ 'write thou.'

Precative, الْكَهِيو likhiye, 'write, or اللهُهِيو likhiye, 'write.'

Future كَبُنْكُ likhi'egā, 'you will be pleased to write.'

<sup>1</sup> It should be observed that there is no necessity to express the personal pronoun in the Imperative, the Aorist, and the Present Perfect (and, in the case of intransitive verbs, in the Past Perfect, and Past Potential), unless any stress is to be laid on the person; and that, in all the tenses, the pronouns, if expressed, as commonly follow as precede the verb.

# 2). THE AORIST.

'I write, or shall write, or should write,' etc.

SINGULAR. main likhūn. == si tū likhe. woh likhe.

هم لکیس ham likhen. tum likho. تُم لِكَهُو . ... De likhen.

# 3). THE FUTURE.

'I shall write,' etc.

main likhūngā. Less i tū likhegā. từ likhegā. و لاغيما wǒh likhegā.

ham likhenge. tum likhoge. تُم لِكَوْكَ we likherige.

### TENSES FORMED FROM THE IMPERFECT PARTICIPLE.

1). THE PAST CONDITIONAL OR OPTATIVE.

'Had I written,' or 'Did I write,' or (Would that) 'I had written,' etc

main likhta. الرِّي عُن tū likhtā. Lied so woh likhta.

ham likhte. tum likhte. ي الكيت eve likhte.

# 2). The Present Imperfect.

'I am writing,' etc.

هُ مَنِي كَا عَنِي main likhtā hān. مَنِي كَانِهُ اللهِ ا

tum likhte ho. تُم لِكَهْتِ هُو tum likhtā hai. تُم لِكَهْتِ هُو لَكُبْتا هُي wěh likhtā hai. وي لِكَهْتِ هُيْن

3). The Past Continuous or Imperfect.

'I was writing,' and 'I used to write'

ham likhte the. مر لكوت ته main likhta thā.

نَمْ لَكُوتَ تَهِ عَنْ اللَّهُ لَهُ لَا تَوْ لَكُوتًا تَهَ اللَّهُ لَا لَهُ لَا تَعْ اللَّهُ اللَّ

### TENSES FORMED FROM THE PASSIVE PARTICIPLE.

1). THE PAST ABSOLUTE OR INDEFINITE.

"I wrote," or lit. "By me (it) was written," etc.

main-ne likhā.1 در الحا نے نے نتے الکیا تو نے لکیا نو نے الکیا۔ us-ne or un-ne أسنة or أن نع لكها

الكيا من الكيا ham-ne likhā. نے لیا tum-ne likhā. unhon-ne likhā.2

2). THE PROXIMATE OR PRESENT PERFECT.

'I have written,' lit. 'By me (it) has been written,' etc.

main-ne likhā hai. tū-ne likhā hai. تُونے لِکھا ھَي us-ne or أَسْنَے us أَن نَے لِكُهَا us-ne or un-ne likhā hai.

مے نے لکھا ھے اللہ ham-ne likhā hai. tum-ne likhā hai. تُم نے لِکہا هي سنے لکیا کھی أ unhon-ne likhā hai.

3). THE REMOTE OR PAST PERFECT.

"I had written,' lit. 'By me (it) had been written."

main-ne likhā thā. tum-ne likhā thā. تُم نِے لِكِهَا تَهَا tum-ne likhā thā. unhon-ne likhā thā. أنهون نه لِكها تها مع us-ne or un-ne أَنهون نه لِكها تها likhā thā.

ہے لکہا تھا ham-ne likhā thā.

4). THE FUTURE PERFECT, OR PAST POTENTIAL.

'I shall have written,' (more commonly) 'I may have written,' etc.

ham-ne likhā hogā. المح نے لکھا ہوگا ham-ne likhā hogā tum-ne likhā hogā. تُم نے لِکھا ہوگا tū-ne likhā hogā. تُونے لِکھا ہوگا unhon-ne likhā أنهول نے لِكنها هوگا us-ne or أَن نے لِكها هوگا un-ne likhā hogā.

1 It will be understood that the participle takes this form only when the object of the act is in the sing. masc., or in the form of the dative; in every other case it will be inflected to agree with the object in gender and number: e.g. میں نے چھی main-ne chitthi likhi, 'I wrote a letter.'

The form is generally used for the sing. (not "to indicate respect," as is generally supposed, see § 141), the form in unhoù-ne is commonly employed for the plural.

Rem. a.—The termination & gā of hogā may even be dropped, in which case the signification is invariably that of the Past Potential: e.g. " us ne likhā ho, 'he may have written.'

Rem. b.-If the root ends in a vowel, the conjugation is effected in the same way: the perfect participle is formed by inserting a euphonic y between the root and the termination  $\bar{a}$  (this y, however, being generally dropped again in the mase pl. and in the fem.), and certain optional forms of the Aorist occur (§ 184): e.g.

Root لي khā, 'to eat.' Perf. part. المن khāyā, 'eaten.'

Aorist.

SINGULAR. • PLURAL.

or مع کهائی or کهاویس main khā'ūn. • معنی کهاؤی ham khā'en or khāwen.

khāwen.

tu khā'e or khāwe.

we khā'en or کهاوی we khā'en or

### PAST ABSOLUTE.

main ne khāyā.

main ne khāyā. ممنے کھایا ham-ne khāyā. ممنے کھایا tū-ne khāyā. تُمنے کھایا tum-ne khāyā. اُنھوں نے کھایا un-hon-ne khāyā.

II. ROOT Ja chal, 'to move, or go.'

Infinitive or Gerund, Liz chal-nā, 'to go,' 'going.'

Noun of Agency, and الله chalne-wala, 'goer,' 'about

Future Active Participle,

chal-ta, 'moving or going.'

1 chal-ā, 'moved or gone.' Perfect

Progressive \\ '\ chalta h\bar{u}'\a, 'in the act of moving,' etc.

Progressive ابن الله الله و الله الله و الل

Adverbial چلتے هي challe hī, 'in the very act, or on the instant of moving,' etc.

### THE IMPERATIVE.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

tum chalo, 'go you.' تُم چلو tū chal, 'go thou.' Precative, \_\_\_\_ chaliye, 'go, or be chaliyo, 'you shall or pleased to go.') will go.'

Future Lil chali'egā, 'you will be pleased to go.'

#### THE AORIST.

"I go, or shall go, or should go,' etc.

main chalūn. خلے ٹو chale. الم عن عند المعالمة عند المعالمة المعا

هم چلین ham chalen. ن tum chalo. , La co we chalen.

### THE FUTURE.

'I shall go,' etc.

main chalūngā. tū chalegā. الله عن woh chalegā.

ham chalenge. tum chaloge. تُم چاوگے ve chalenge. Line s, we chalenge.

# THE PAST CONDITIONAL OR OPTATIVE.

'Had I gone,' 'Did I go,' (Would that) 'I had gone,' etc.

main chalta. tū chaltā. علتا عن woh chalta.

ham chalte. tum chalts. ی حلتے در we chalte.

## THE PRESENT IMPERFECT.

'I am going,' etc.

ham chalte hain. هم چلّت هُين مِين muin chaltā hūn. tum chalte ho. تُم چلتے هو tū chaltā hai.

. we chalte hain وي حِلت هَيس woh chaltā hai. وي حِلتا هَي woh chaltā hain.

THE PAST CONTINUOUS OR IMPERFECT.

'I was going,' etc.

ham chalte the. مر حِلْت تها ما main chalta tha. tum chalte the. تُم چلت تھے tum chalte the. we chalte the. وي چلتے تھے اسلام won chalta tha.

THE PAST ABSOLUTE OR INDEFINITE.

"I went,' etc.

1 main chalā. tū chalā. 1 > 8, woh chala.

م چاے ham chale. علي أن tum ohale. \_ La se we chale.

THE PROXIMATE, OR PRESENT PERFECT.

I have set out, or gone,' etc.

ham chale hain. هم چلے کَیْں ham chale hain. هم چلے کَیْں چلا هُوں tū chalū hai. تُم چلے هو tum chale ho. تُم چلے هیں we chale hain.

THE REMOTE, OR PAST PERFECT.

'I had started or gone,' etc.

ہ مر چلے تھے ham chala tha. مر چلے تھے ham chale the. مر چلے تھے tū chalā thā. مر چلے تھا ٹو چلا تھا وي حلي تها به woh chalā thā. الله على we chale the.

THE FUTURE PERFECT, OR PAST POTENTIAL.

'I shall have gone,' or (more commonly) 'I may have gone,' etc.

we chale وي چلے هونگ or هوں من wor وه چلا هوگا or دو

ham chale هم چلے هونگ or هوں اِ main chala مَيْن چلا هُونگا or هوں hūngā or hon. honge or hon. honge or hon. honge or hon. أو چلا هوگا or هو tū chalā hogā or ho. ولا هوگا or هو

honge or hon.

Rem. The above is the conjugation of an intransitive-active verb, the root of which ends in a consonant. If the root ends in a vowel, the acrist admits of certain optional forms, and the masculine singular of the perfect participle takes an euphonic y between the root and the termination. The following tenses will therefore suffice to show the process of conjugation:

Root 
$$\bar{l}$$
  $\bar{a}$ , 'to come.' Pref. Part.  $\bar{l}$   $\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ , 'come.'

The Aorist.

'I come, or shall come, or should come,' etc. SINGULAR. main ā'ūn.

tū ā'e or āwe. ري آ or آئي or قرآني or آئي or آئي

هم آئيس or آويس ham a'en or awen. ثم آؤ tum a'o. we a'en or awen.

THE PAST ABSOLUTE, OR INDEFINITE.

"I came,' etc.

UT main āyā. لآ ئ tū āyā. bī s, woh āyā. Fem. مين آئي main ā'ī, etc.

i ham a'e. tum ā'e. تُم آئے ج ت نے we a'e. Fem. هم آئِير ham ā'īn, etc.

# III. ROOT , ho,1 'to be, or become.'

Infinitive or Gerund U, b honā, 'to be, or become,' being,' etc. Fut. Act. Part. الم مونے اللہ hone-wala,2 'about to be, or become,' one who, or what, is, or is about, to be or become.'

hotā, 'being, or becoming.' ا مُرَّمُ  $h\bar{u}'\bar{u}$ , 'been, or become.' Perfect Progressive موتا هوتا موتا موتا موتا موتا موتا علي hotā hū'ā, 'in the act of being or becoming.'

Conjunctive { هو موکر هوکرکي الموان موکرکي الموان الموان

Adverbial هوتے هي hote-hā, 'in the very act, or in the instant of being,' etc.

<sup>2</sup> Urdā also occasionally employs the common Hindī form honhār, 'what is to be,' etc., where the affix har is added to the verbal noun hon.

<sup>1</sup> Urdū grammarians, after the example of the Arabic, have two names for the verb hona, and the other auxiliary verbs with the same signification. When the substantive verb is used to denote simple being or existence, they term it fë'lë nāķis, 'the incomplete or defective verb,' because an attribute is required to complete the sense; but when it contains the attribute in itself, and requires no other, they term it fe'le tamm, 'the complete or absolute verb.'

#### THE IMPERATIVE.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

يُّ tun ho, 'be or become you.' مَ هُو هُو الله أَوْ الله أَله الله أَوْ الله أَلَّا الله أَوْ الله أَلْ الله أَلْمُ اللَّالِي اللله أَلْ اللَّهُ اللَّالِي اللله أَل

Fut مُوحِدُّي hūji'egā, 'will you be pleased to become.'

### THE AORIST.

"I am, I shall be, I should be, or become," etc.

### THE FUTURE.

'I shall be, or become,' etc.

THE PAST CONDITIONAL OR OPTATIVE.

"Were I,' 'Did I become,' (Would that) 'I were,' etc.

"ham hote. هم هوت ham hote. هم هوت tun hote.

"tun hote. هوت we hote.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The forms marked with an asterisk are now seldom or never used. The forms  $ho^*eg\bar{a}$  and  $ho^*enge$  in the 2nd and 3rd pers. sing. and the 1st and 3rd pers. plural of the Future, which are given in Forbes' and other grammars, rarely if ever occur in the Urd $\bar{a}$  of the present period.

### THE PRESENT IMPERFECT.

"I am becoming," etc.

ham hote hain. هم هوت هين الله main hotā hūn. رِيْ هُوتًا هُي woh hotā hai.

tum hote ho. تُم هوتے هو . we hote hain وي هوتے كيل

### THE PAST CONTINUOUS OR IMPERFECT.

'I was becoming,' etc.

ham hote the. هم هوت تهي الله main hotā thā.

tum hote the. تُم هوتے تھے tum hote the. we hote the. وي هوتا تها voh hota tha.

### THE PAST ABSOLUTE OR INDEFINITE.

I became,' etc.

las main hū'ā. tū hū'ā. las sa woh hū'a.

هم هودنے ham hū'e. tum hū'e. تُمْ هُوئي ی فرنے کی کو سو hū'e.

# THE PROXIMATE OR PRESENT PERFECT.

'I have become,' etc.

ham hū'e hain. هم هُونْ هَيْنِ أَمُوا هُونِ مَيْنِ هُوا هُون tum hū'e ho. تُم دُوئے هو tu hū'ā hai. تُم دُوئے هو wöh hū'ā hai. وي هُوئا هَي we hū'e haii.

# THE REMOTE OR PAST PERFECT.

'I had become,' etc.

عَوْا رَيْا عَلَى عَمْ woh hū'ā tha.

main hū'ā thā. هم هُونْ تها main hū'ā thā. tum hū'e the تُم هُونَت تهت tu hū'a tha. we hū'e the.

THE FUTURE PERFECT AND PAST POTENTIAL.

'I shall have become,' or 'I may have become,' etc.

wöh hū'ā hogā, or ho.

, we hū' e honge وي هُوئي هونگ \_ هوں

#### ADDITIONAL TENSES.

195. We may here notice the tenses not in common use, spoken of in § 181. These are: 1). The Future Imperfect, which is formed by adding the Future of the verb Upa honā to the imperfect participle of a verb: 2). The Present Potential, formed by adding the Aorist of the verb  $\cup_{\bullet}$  hon $\bar{a}$  to the imperfect part. of a verb: 3). The Past Perfect Continuous of the Subjunctive mood, formed by adding the imperfect participle of the verb  $hon\bar{u}$  to the imperfect participle of another verb: 4) the Past Perfect Subjunctive, formed by adding the imperfect participle of the verb verb verb, to the perfect part. of another verb. The first and second of these tenses are both called حال مُتشكِي hālě mutashakkī, 'the present potential,' by native grammarians, because the first is frequently used, the second always, to express uncertainty or possibility. The third and fourth are both termed ماضي māzī shartī, 'the past conditional.' They are very seldom used; the shorter form of the māzī sharţī, given among the tenses in common use, being preferred. The four tenses are subjoined:

### 1). THE FUTURE IMPERFECT.

'I shall be going,' or 'I may be going,' etc.

ham chalte honge. هم چلتے هونگے | main chalta hanga. مَيْن چلْتا هُونگا tum chalte hoge. تُم چلّت هوگے: tu chalta hogā. we chalte honge. وي چلتے هونگے ا woh chalta hogā.

## 2). THE PRESENT POTENTIAL.

## 'I may be going,' etc.

ham chalte hon. هم چلتے هوں main chalta hon.

tum chalte ho. تُم چِلْتَ هو tu chalta ho. we chalte hon. وي حِلْت هول wo chalta ho.

### 3). THE PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS (SUBJUNCTIVE).

'Had I been going,' or 'I might have been going,' etc.

ham chalte hote. هم چلتے هوتے ham chalte hote. we chalte hote. وي حِلْت هوت we chalta hotā.

tum chalte hote. تُم چلّت هوت ي tū chaltā hotā.

# 4). THE PAST PERFECT (SUBJUNCTIVE).

'Had I gone,' etc.

ham chale hote. هم چلے هوتے ham chala hote.

tum chale hote. تُم چلے هوتے tu chalā hotā. we chale hote. وي جل هوتا woh chala hota.

#### THE PASSIVE VOICE.

196. Only transitive verbs have a passive voice. The tenses of this are regularly formed in all verbs by means of the tenses of the verb U> jānā, 'to go' (the perfect participle of which is \$\mathcal{Z} gay\bar{a}\$); though every form in which the verb  $j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$  is found is not passive: e.g. 1الله chalā jānā, 'to go away,' الله إلله uthā jānā, 'to rise up,' 'to be able to rise,' are active forms of intransitive

verbs. Whether the verb is passive or intransitive is decided not by the presence of the auxiliary  $j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ , but by the nature of the participle prefixed to it. If this be passive, so also, generally, is the verb: if it is not passive, but only a perfect participle of an intransitive verb, neither is the verb passive.

197. In the following conjugation of the passive voice of the verb i i i i i i i i i see,' the masculine forms alone are given. If the nominative to the verb be feminine, the termination of the passive participle must be changed to i i i in both the singular and the plural; and that of all the participial forms, and of the Future, of the auxiliary must be changed to i i in the singular, and i i i i in the plural.

Passive Verb, ديكها جانا dekhā jānā, 'to be seen.'

Infinitive or Verbal Noun, ديكها جانا dekhā jānā, {'to be seen,' being seen.' Imperfect Participle, عيكها جاتا dekhā jātā, 'being seen.' Passive Participle, ديكها گيا طلاله dekhā gayā, 'been seen.'

THE IMPERATIVE.

singular.

PLURAL.

ptural.

tum dekhe ja'o,

be you seen.'

ptural.

tum dekhe ja'o,

be you seen.'

THE AORIST.

we dekhe وي ديكه جاويل - جائيل woh dekhā وه ديكها جاوي - جائي jāwen or jā'en.

<sup>1</sup> It is needless to give the remaining participles, as none of them, except perhaps the adverbial (دیکھے جاتے ہیں) dekhe jāte-hī, 'on the instant of being seen,' are ever used.

### THE FUTURE.

### 'I shall be seen,' etc.

ham dekha مم ديكه جائينگ الله main dekha مَيْن ديكها جاونگا jà'ūngā. tū dekhā أنه ديكها جاويكا حالكا jāwegā, or jā'egā.

wöh dekhā وُه ديكها جاه بِگا \_ جائگا jāwegā, or jā'egā.

tum dekhe ja'oge. تُم ديكيَ جاؤگ

se dekhe وي ديكہے جاوينگے jāwenge.

### THE PAST CONDITIONAL OR OPTATIVE.

'Had I been seen,' 'Were I seen,' etc.

ham dekhe jata. مم ديكي جات ham dekhe jate. we dekhe jāta. وي ديكها جاتا woh dekhā jātā.

tum dekhe jāte. تُم ديكنِ جاتا tum dekhe jāte.

### THE PRESENT IMPERFECT.

'I am being seen,' etc.

tum dekhe jate ho. تُم ديكه جاتے هو tā dekhā jatā hai. تُو ديكها جاتا هي we dekhe jate وي ديكهے جاتے هَيْن | wŏh dekhā jātā hai. وُه ديكها جاتا هَيّ

ham dekhe هم ديكتے جاتے هَيْس اللهِ main dekhā مَيْس ديكيا جاتا هُوں jātā hān. hain.

### THE PAST CONTINUOUS OR IMPERFECT.

'I was being seen,' etc.

ham dekhe هم ديگهے جاتے تھے main dekhä ميں ديگها جاتا تھا jātā thā.

tum dekhe تُم ديكهے جاتے تھے . tum dekha jata tha تُو ديكها جاتا تھا

we dekhe jate وي ديكها جاتا تها woh dekha jata tha.

the.

### THE PAST ABSOLUTE OR INDEFINITE.

'I was seen,' etc.

tū dekhā gayā. لما گيا گيا گيا گيا گيا گيا

ham dekhe ga'e. هم ديكها كنا main dekhā gayā. مين ديكها كيا we dekhe ga'e.

### THE PROXIMATE OR PRESENT PERFECT

'I have been seen,' etc.

ham dekhā وم ديكه كُلَّم هُيْن ما main dekhā gayā مَيْن ديكها گيا هُون ga'e hain. tum dekhe ga'e ho. تُم ديكه على على على tu dekhā gayā hai. أو ديكها كيا هي we dekho وي ديكه كله هَيْن won dekhā gayā hai. وي ديكها گيا هَي qa'e hain.

### THE REMOTE OR PAST PERFECT.

'I had been seen,' etc.

يا تيا گيا تيا گيا تيا . võh dekhā gayā thā.

ham dekha مر دیکہے گئے تھے main dekhā میٹی دیکھا گیا تھا
gayā thā. tum dekhe تُم ديكها كيا تها tū dekhā gayā thā. حيث علما كيا تها ga'e the. we dekhe ga'e وي ديكه گلف تني the.

THE FUTURE PERFECT, OR PAST POTENTIAL.

"I shall have been seen,' or more commonly, 'I may have been seen,' etc.

dekhā gayā hūngā, or hon. hoga, or ho. wöh dekkā وُلا ديكها كيا هوكا۔ هو gayā hogā, or ho.

ham هم دیکھے گئے هونگے۔هوں | main مَنِی دیکھا گیا هُونگا۔هور، dekhe ga'e honge, or hon. tum تُم دیکھے گئے ہوگے ۔ ہو ا tū dekhā gayā تُودیکھا گیا ہوگا۔ ہو dekhe ga'e hoge, or ho. oo وی دیکھے گئے هونگے۔ هوں

dekhe ga'e honge, or hon,

#### DERIVATIVE VERBS.

198. Derivative verbs may be classed under the three heads of Causals, Denominatives, and Compound Verbs.

#### I. CAUSAL VERBS.1

- 199. From nearly every verb in the language a causal may be derived. This causal will be transitive if formed from an intransitive verb, doubly transitive or causative if formed from a transitive verb. From most causals again a second or double causal may be formed.
- 200. Simple verbal roots are generally changed into causal bases by the addition of the increment  $-\bar{a}$ , and into those which are doubly causal by means of the increment  $w\bar{a}$ , and the root is then treated as a primitive root ending in  $\bar{a}$ . But in some verbs the causal characteristic  $\bar{a}$  becomes  $\bar{a}$  the large  $\bar{a}$  in others it is inserted in the root itself: hence three cases arise:
- a) The causal may, generally speaking, be formed by adding  $1 \bar{a}$  to the root of a primitive verb, whether it be transitive or intransitive, and the double causal by inserting w before the increment  $\bar{a}$  of the causal: e.g.

PRIMITIVE VERB.	CAUSAL.	DOUBLE CAUSAL.
يَّرُهُمَّا parh-nā, 'to read.'	يڙهانا parhā-nā,	الله الله الله الله الله الله الله الله
'to read.'	'to cause to read,	
	'to teach.'	thing by some one).'
girnā, گِرُنا 'to fall.'	girā-nā, گِرانا	girwā-nā, 'to get or گِرُوانا
'to fall.'	'to cause to fall,'	
	'to fell,' etc.	down (by some one).'
uthnā, اُنْهِنا	uţhā-nā, أتهانا	uthwā-nā, 'to have (a التجوانا
'to rise."	'to raise.'	thing) raised (by some one).'

¹ A causal verb is termed by the native grammarians  $fe^{i}l^{i}$  muta'addī bi'l wāsiṭa, 'a verb which passes on (to an object) by means of (an increment),' in contradistinction to 'a verb which is transitive per se,' or  $fe^{i}l^{i}$  muta'addī bi nafsihi.

<sup>2</sup> In a few verbs w would appear to be inserted before the causal increment  $\bar{a}$  for

the sake of euphony alone.

Subordinate to this rule are the two following:

1) If the root of the primitive verb be dissyllabic, the vowels of both syllables being short and that of the second fatha (a), this fatha is dropped in the first causal (cf. § 34, 4, Rem. c.): e.q.

ramajh-nā, المجاهلة samajh-nā, المجاهلة samajh-nā, أله samajh-nā, أله samajh-nā, أله samajhwā-nā, 'to have 'to understand.' 'to explain.' (a thing) explained (to one person by another).' المجاهلة pighal-nā, المجاهلة pighal-nā, 'to have 'to melt' (intrans.). 'to melt' (trans.). (a thing) melted (by some one).'

2) If the root of the primitive verb be monosyllabic and enclose a long vowel or diphthong, the vowel or diphthong is changed in both causals into the corresponding short vowels, or, in other words, the letters of prolongation 1, ,, are dropped: e.g.

jāg-nā, 'to كانا خاكنا jagā-nā, 'to wake.' جاگنا مورون بانا معروب بانا ما jāg-nā, 'to cause (one) to be wakened.' be awake.' رانا ¿bhigā nā,¹ 'to wet.' بهگوانا bhigā nā, 'to have bhīg-nā, ' to ديمانيا (a thing) wetted.' become wet.' dubwā-nā, 'to sink,' يُّبِّرِانا إلى إلى dubwā-nā, 'to have dūbnā, 'to sink' (intrans.). (a thing) sunk.' bulwā-nā, 'to call الله bulwā-nā, 'to have bol-nā, 'to بولنا speak.' (one) to (come and) (one) called. baith-nā, 'to يَتْهُو لَنَا bithānā, 'to seat.' لِيَتْهُوانَا baith-nā, 'to كِيتُهُا

b) If the root of the primitive verb end in a long vowel  $(\bar{a}, \bar{\imath}, e, \bar{u}, o)$ , the increment generally takes the form  $b l\bar{a}$  in the causal, and  $b l w\bar{a}$  in the double causal; and the long vowel of the root is shortened as in the preceding rule: e.g.

(one) to be seated.'

sit down.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The causals of bhīgnā and dūbnā may also take the forms bhigonā and dubnā (See Rem. § 202), and that of baithnā other forms, which are given under Rule c.

PRIMITIVE VERI	CAUSAL.	DOUBLE CAUSAL.
کہانا <i>khā-nā</i> ,	لانا کیلانا khilā-nā,¹ 'to give to	khilwā-nā. کھِلُوانا
'to eat.'	eat,' 'to feed.'	
پينا pī-nā, 'to drink.'	پلانا pilā-nā, 'to give to	pilwā-nā. پِلُوانا
drink.'	drink.'	
دينا de-nā, ' to	رلانا dilā-nā, 'to cause to	وَلُوانا dilwā-nā.
give.'	give.'	
chhū nā,	الْمَا يُونِي chhulā·nā, 'to cause	chhulwā-nā. چېگوانا
'to touch."	to touch.'	- '
so-nā, ' to سونا	تلانا sulā-nā, 'to put to	sulwā-nā.
sleep.	sleep.	

A few verbs take the form of the double causal alone: e.g. گانا له khonā, 'to lose,' causal کُونا khuwā-nā; گانا gānā, 'to sing,' causal گوانا lenā, 'to take,' causal لينا liwā-nā.

Some verbs, the roots of which end in consonants (chiefly h, kh th), may take the increment  $l\bar{a}$  in the causal, as well as  $\bar{a}$ ; but in the double causal the increment is always  $w\bar{a}$ : e.g.

يهندّلانا ,, 'phānd-nā, 'to ensnare,' ,, پهندّلانا phānd-nā, 'to ensnare,' بهاندّنا

Rem. The same causal forms are also found in cases where the roots of the primitive verbs (which have become obsolete) end in t(d), and s: as batla.na, 'to tell,' to point out;' phusla.na, 'to wheedle,' 'to coax.'

<sup>1</sup> The instances of radical  $\bar{a}$  changing to i in the causal are not numerous; and even the example given above takes the form  $khal\bar{a}n\bar{a}$  in Southern India.

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دندا dabnā, 'to be pressed,' transitive دائدا dābnā, 'to press.'
                                     katnā, 'to be spun,'
                                      كاتنا kāṭnā, 'to cut.'
  لقنا katnā, 'to be cut,'
                                     ່ວ່າ phārnā, 'to tear.'
  "phaţnā, 'to be torn,'
                                      لادٌنا lādnā, 'to load.'
  لدُنا ladnā, 'to be laden,'
bandhnā, 'to be bound,'
                                 , لندهنا bāndhnā, 'to bind.'
  w marnā, 'to die,'
                                     "mārnā, 'to kill.'
  garnā, 'to be buried,'
                                      يَّ الْ gāṛnā, 'to bury.'
   palnā, 'to be protected,'
                                     بالنا pālnā, 'to protect.'
  nikalnā, 'to come out,'
                                    اللَّالُّذِي nikālnā, 'to take out.'
 thamna, ) to be held,
                                     thāmnā, ) 'to hold,
thambhnā, or supported,
                                  " بهانسهنا thānbhnā, for support.
  ritnā, 'to be filed,'
                                  ,, بتنا retnā, 'to file.'
chhidnā, 'to be perforated,'
                                  ,, ان ميد chhednā, 'to perforate.'
  لَكُنَّ biknā, 'to be sold,'
                                  " bechnā,2 'to sell.'
  phutnā, ) 'to burst,
                                 ,, كَانَ phorna, 'to break.'
 بي phūṭnā, ) or split asunder.'
  Lis khulnā, 'to become open,'
                                  " كَيْ لِلْهُ kholnā, 'to open.'
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<sup>1</sup> The softening of the tenuis t into the media d (r), and of th into rh, occurs most commonly after the letters p, ph, ch, chh, and gh: e.g.  $parhn\bar{a}$ , 'to read' = Sanskrit pathanam;  $p\bar{r}rh\bar{a}$ , 'a stool' = S.  $p\bar{r}tha$ ;  $phor\bar{a}$ , 'a boil' = S. sphotaka;  $chiriy\bar{a}$ , 'a bird' = S. chataka;  $chhakr\bar{a}$ , 'a cart' = S. shatata; ghara, 'an earthen pot' = S. ghata;  $ghor\bar{a}$ , 'a horse' = S. ghotaka. If ph and a long vowel precede t, it generally passes into r.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> This change of k into ch is almost inexplicable. I can find no mention of such a change in the  $Pr\bar{a}krita-Prak\bar{a}sa$ . But there would appear to be in Sanskrit some connection between the guttural class of letters and the palatal; for when a verb beginning with a guttural is reduplicated, the corresponding palatal is used; and, reversely, final ch of nominal bases is changed into k before certain case-endings.

- Rem. a. In a few transitive verbs the root vowels of the corresponding intransitives are simply lengthened: e.g. بِيسْنا pīṣnā, 'to grind,' from يَسْنا piṣnā; نِيسْنا piṣnā; نِيسْنا piṣnā; 'to beat,' from چَهِيلْنا gūthnā, 'to peel,' from گُوتهْنا guthnā, 'to peel,' from گُرتهْنا guthnā.
- Rem. b. Under this class of verbs (which are strangely termed "anomalous") existing grammars place the verb ركيّنا rakhnā, 'to keep,' as the causal of ركيّنا rahnā, 'to remain;' but this is a mistake: the two verbs are derived from distinct Sanskrit forms.
- 201. These verbs, though derived (as we shall presently see) from Sanskrit causals, have in many, if not most, cases lost the causal signification, and become simply transitive. Hence we find that some of the intransitive verbs of this class, as well as their transitive derivatives, have also regular causals (and double causals) formed from them; but these, as a rule, retain the true causal character; and where the primitive intransitive verb has various significations, it will often be found that some of them are peculiar to the transitive and some to the causal derivative: e.g. from the verb with phoina is formed the transitive with phoina, and the causal with phoina; but the former signifies 'to break,' and the latter 'to make (water, etc.) boil,' a sense which phoina never has.

<sup>1</sup> This common word, strange to say, is not found in Shakespear's Dictionary, and, though given in Forbes', is said to mean 'to increase,' etc. But the dictionaries make sad confusion among the causal verbs. Saparānā, for example, is given as the causal of saparānā also: in the first case it signifies 'to prick,' 'to thrust in,' etc.; in the second, 'to have or get (a thing or person) buried.' Similarly kaṭānā is the causal of both saṭānā and saṭānā, but more commonly that of the latter. We may here observe that in some verbs the first causal derived from a transitive verb is sometimes identical in meaning with the second: e.g. kaṭāna = kaṭwāna; rakhānā = rakhwānā.

202. The following sentences will exemplify the use of the primitive and causal forms of a verb:

مكان گِزْتا هَي makān girtā hai, 'the house is falling :' يَّ اَدْمِي مكان كو گِراتا هَي wöh ādmī makān-ko girātā hai, 'that (or the) man is throwing (or pulling) down the house:'

مالِکُ اُس آدْمِي سے اَپْنے مکان کو گِرُواتا هي mālik us ādmī se apne makān-ko girwātā hai, 'the owner is having his house pulled down by that man.'

سَيْن عربي پڙهْنا هُون main arabī parhtā hūn, 'I am reading

پنے لڑکے کو عربی پڑھاتا دُوں apne larke-ko 'arabī parhātā hūn',
'I am teaching my boy Arabic :'

مُواوِي صاحِب سے اَنِّنے لَزِّکے کو عربِي بِرَّهُواتا هُوں maulavī ṣāḥibse apne larke-ko 'arabī parhwāta hūn, 'I am having my boy taught Arabic by the Maulavī-ṣāḥib.

Rem. The causal affix of the Sanskrit is ay, which in many verbs (chiefly when the verbal root ends in a long vowel) takes the form  $\bar{a}pay$ . The Prākrit changes ay into e, and  $\bar{a}pay$  into  $(\bar{a}be$ , and then)  $\bar{a}ve$ , and uses both forms without any apparent distinction. In Hindī and its sister dialects the first affix is not used, and the second is changed to  $\bar{a}\bar{u}$ , by clision of final e, and weakening of v to u; and from  $\bar{a}\bar{u}$ , by clision of u, is derived the causal characteristic  $\bar{a}$  of the modern Hindī. But in a few verbs the vowels  $\bar{a}$ , u, would appear to have coalesced into o: e.g.  $bh\bar{\imath}gon\bar{a}$ ,  $dubon\bar{a}$ ,  $garon\bar{a}$ , etc., the causals of  $bh\bar{\imath}gn\bar{a}$ ,  $d\bar{\imath}ubn\bar{a}$ , and  $garn\bar{a}$ .

The modern dialects also use  $l\bar{a}$  as a causal characteristic, and in this form the l is generally supposed to be inserted for the sake of cuphony. But in this opinion we cannot concur; for when these languages desire to avoid a hiatus (and we may observe in passing that they are by no means averse to a hiatus), they generally insert y, or h, and not l. Besides, we find  $l\bar{a}$  used as the causal affix even in

cases where the verbal root ends in a consonant, and no insertion of euphonic l is called for. It seems more probable that  $l\bar{a}$  is derived from the Sanskrit causal affix ay, which was first changed to  $\bar{a}l$ , or  $\bar{a}r$  (the two letters l and r being commonly interchangeable), and then to  $l\bar{a}$ , or  $r\bar{a}$ . Hindī and Panjābī show a preference for  $l\bar{a}$ , while Sindhī and Gujarātī prefer  $r\bar{a}$ . We can only call to mind one example of the form  $\bar{a}l$  of the increment in Hindī, namely  $bith\bar{a}ln\bar{a}$ ; but numerous examples of the form  $\bar{a}r$  are to be found in Sindhī. That y is occasionally changed into l is seen from the Prākrit latthi (the Hindī  $l\bar{a}th\bar{a}$ , 'a stick,' or lath, 'a column') = Sanskrit yashti ( $Pr\bar{a}krita-Pra-k\bar{a}$ sa, ed. Cowell, sect. ii. 32).

As regards the verbs given under Rule c.), it may be mentioned that their bases are not formed in Hindi in the manner described; but the rule is an attempt to explain the modification which a verbal root undergoes in Sanskrit before it receives the causal affix. These verbs are incorrectly called "anomalous:" they are simply derived from the verbal nouns of Sanskrit causals: e.g. the verbal noun maranam of the Sanskrit root mri, is the source of the Hindi intransitive verb marna, 'to die;' in the causal the root mri takes the form mar, and the verbal noun is māranam, whence the Hindī transitive verb mārnā, 'to kill.' In not a few cases a process the reverse of that described in the rule takes place; namely, the intransitive verb is formed from the transitive in Hindī itself: e.g. the Sanskrit causal form pālanam = Hindī pālnā, 'to protect,' whence is formed palnā, 'to be protected;' the Sanskrit māpanam = Hindī māpnā, 'to measure,' whence mapnā, 'to be measured.' Some transitive verbs, it may be observed, have no corresponding intransitive, and retain no trace of their being causals; as bheina, 'to send' = S. bhedanam, 'dividing.'

#### II. DENOMINATIVE VERBS.

203. Denominatives may be conveniently noticed under the two following heads:—

## 1) DENOMINATIVES FORMED FROM VERBAL NOTNS.

These are formed by adding the infinitive increment variation or Arabic verbal noun; e.g. مُعَدُّ bakhshnā, 'to forgive,' from the Persian خُرِيدُ نَّ bakhsh; 'to forgive,' from the Persian غُرِيدُ نَّ bakhsh; 'to purchase,' from the Persian بديّن badalnā, 'to change,' from the Arabic عَرُولُ kabūlnā, 'to accept,' from the Arabic عَرُولُ kabūlnā, 'to accept,' from the Arabic تَرُولُ kabūlnā, 'to fear,' from words ending in two quiescent consonants, the penultimate letter is made movent with fatha (a) before the termination nā is added: e.g. ترسَّ tarasnā, 'to fear,' from ترسَّ tars, 'fearing,' 'fear;' bahasnā, 'to dispute,' from bahs, 'controversy.'

### 2) DENOMINATIVES DERIVED FROM OTHER NOUNS.

These are formed by adding the termination  $U = \bar{a}n\bar{a}$  to a substantive or adjective, final  $\overline{z}$  being changed to iy before the termination is added, and a long vowel in a dissyllabic noun shortened: e.g. شرمان sharmānā, 'to be bashful,' from گرمانا sharm, 'shame;' شرم garmānā, 'to be heated,' 'to become warm or angry,' from I garm, 'hot;' پنِيَان paniyānā, 'to water, or irrigate,' from پنِيَان pānī, 'water;' water;' hulkiyānā, 'to hit with the fist,' 'to knead dough, from , the fist. If the noun or adjective end in  $\bar{a}$ , the termination  $n\bar{a}$  alone is added; as chaurānā, 'to widen,' from الله chaurā, 'wide;' langrānā, 'to go lame,' 'to limp,' from النظا langrā, 'lame.' A few Persian nouns also, which are monosyllabic and enclose a long vowel, take the termination na instead of ana: e.g. دافينا dagna, 'to brand, or cauterize,' from ¿\s dag, 'a spot or mark.'

Rem. Denominatives are not of very common occurrence in Urdū, compound forms being generally preferred; e.g. نخش دينا bakksh denā,

'to forgive,' قَبُولَ كُرْنا 'kabūl karnā, 'to accept,' مُركِي مازنا 'mukkī mārnā, 'to hit with the first,' پانِي دينا pānī denā, 'to water,' چُوڙا 'chaurā karnā, 'to widen.'

#### III. COMPOUND VERBS.

204. Compound verbs, or what are commonly regarded as such, are very numerous in Hindūstānī. They are generally divided into Nominals, Intensives, Potentials, Completives, Continuatives, Staticals, Frequentatives, Desideratives, Inceptives, Permissives, Acquisitives, and Reiteratives; but not a few of these are, strictly speaking, not compound verbs, but phrases, as we shall show in noticing them.

#### Nominals.

205. These are formed by prefixing a noun (substantive or adjective) to a verb: e.g.

jam' honā, 'to be or become collected,' 'to collect.'

jam' karnā, 'to make collected,' 'to collect.'

jam' karnā, 'to breathe a word,' 'to speak,' 'to boast.'

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dam mārnā, 'to breathe a word,' 'to speak,' 'to boast.'

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Such forms, it is clear, are not compound verbs; the noun in every instance simply serves to complete the notion of the verb, forming the *predicative noun* in the *Nominative* when the verb is *intransitive*, and in the *Accusative* when the verb is *transitive*. It is even (as we shall show in the Syntax) in not a few instances separated from the verb by other words.

206. Similar in character to the Nominal verbs are the

few compounds formed by prefixing a Persian preposition or adverb to a Hindī verb: e.g.

برآنا bar-ānā, 'to come up or forth,' 'to succeed.'

الله bar-lānā, 'to bring up or forth,' 'to accomplish.'

الله ba-ham-ānā, 'to come together,' 'to be acquired.'

الله ba-ham pahunchnā, 'to arrive or come together,' 'to be procured.'

الله bāz-ānā, 'to come back,' 'to decline,' 'to abstain.'

الله bāz-rakhnā, 'to keep or hold back,' 'to restrain.'

الله pesh-ānā, 'to come before,' 'to present (itself),' 'to treat,' etc.

207. The remaining compound verbs may be arranged under four classes, according as they are formed with the verbal root, the imperfect participle, the perfect participle, or the conjunctive participle.

a) Compounds formed with the Root.

These are the Intensives, Potentials, and Completives.

### 1) Intensives.

208. Intensives are formed by prefixing the root of a verb to another verb, which is regularly conjugated, the root remaining unchanged. The signification of the compound is that of the root intensified by the second member. In many cases however the effect produced by the second member of the compound is not obvious. Examples are:—

Rem. The appropriate verb for intensifying another, like the appropriate adverb in English, is determined by usage. Not a few verbs, which existing grammars call intensives, have nothing intensive in their signification; some of them are properly completives; others simply transitives, formed by prefixing the root form of the conjunctive participle of the verb لين العبر المعاملة المعامل

### 2) POTENTIALS.

209. These verbs express the ability to perform an action. They are formed by adding the verb  $\omega sakn\bar{a}$ , 'to be able,' to the root form of another verb: e.g.

جا سکنا jā-saknā, 'to be able to go.' جا سکنا dekh-saknā, 'to be able to sec.' کر سکنا که kar-saknā, 'to be able to do.' کر سکنا شوں main-kar saktā hun, 'I can do.' مَيْن کر سکتا شوں woh dekh-saka, 'he could see.'

1 A recent writer on Urdū Grammar observes: "The verbs le-ānā, le-fānā, khā-jānā, etc., are neuter, because the verbs ānā and jānā are neuter." This is simply incorrect. They are transitive, and are so called by native grammarians; but, like a few other transitive verbs, do not take the passive construction in the tenses composed of the past participle because a passive participle cannot be formed from them.

<sup>2</sup> The same grammarian tries to "discriminate" between the forms  $ho_1\bar{j}\bar{n}n\bar{a}$  and  $ho_1raln\bar{a}$ ;  $so_1\bar{g}n\bar{a}$  and  $so_1raln\bar{a}$ ; but his remarks show that he is not aware of the fact that the verbs  $j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$  and  $raln\bar{a}$  are frequently synonymous, and are commonly used in the sense of  $hon\bar{a}$ , and are called by the native grammarians 'the sisters of hona.' Had he lived in India, he would have often heard the expression so ralo used in the sense of 'go to sleep,' and  $s_1\bar{a}$  his  $so_1\bar{a}$  hai, in the sense of both 'the master is sleeping,' and 'the master has gone to sleep.' So, in the  $so_1\bar{a}$  hai  $so_1\bar{a}$ 

Rem. It is very probable that the first part of these compounds is the apocopated infinitive, and not the root. Indeed we occasionally find the full form of the infinitive (always inflected however) expressed; as رَع ديكين سكتا هي wöh dekhne saktā hai, 'he can see.' It may be observed that the verb saknā occurs only in compounds.

### 3) Completives.

210. These are obtained by adding the verb  $-n\bar{a}$ , 'to come to an end,' 'to be finished,' to the root of a verb; as

بول چُگنا bol-chuknā, 'to have done speaking.' بول چُگنا paṛh-chuknā, 'to have done reading.'

In the past tenses the compound may also imply that the act is really finished in agreement or disagreement with what preceded it, or just a little before the time of speaking; as من من من كر خيا الله main kar-chukā, 'I have already done' (it or so). The Past Indefinite tense is often used most idiomatically to express the utter improbability of the speaker's performing an act, or of his belief in the improbability of another's performing it; as المعند المعند

Rem. The verb chuknā, like the verb saknā, occurs only in compounds.

- b) Compounds formed with the Imperfect Participle.
- 211. These are the Continuatives and Staticals of existing grammars. They are not compound verbs, but phrases wherein the participle is used adjectively or adverbially to denote a  $\hbar \bar{a}l$ , or circumstance.

### 1) CONTINUATIVES.

212. Continuatives are formed by prefixing an imperfect participle to one of the verbs  $j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$  or  $j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$  or  $j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ , used as synonymous with ij  $hon\bar{a}$ ; the participle which always takes the inflected masculine form conveying the idea of a continuous or habitual act or state: e.g.

بگتے جانا bakte jānā, 'to be continually prating,' 'to go on prating.' ghumte rahnā, 'to be ever revolving,' 'to keep revolving.' parhte jānā, ويُّمْت رهنا parhte rahnā, 'to continue or go on reading.'

Rem. The participle in these forms is in the locative case, and is used adverbially.

### 2) STATICALS.

but) مَيْن نِه أَسْكُوا دُوَرِّتِه بِكَاتِا main-ne usko daurte pakṛā, 'I caught it (while I was) running.'

Rem. The so-called Staticals differ from Continuatives in denoting a temporary or accidental state. The two forms are clearly distinguished in most native grammars, but are strangely misunderstood by European grammarians, who teach that the participle is inflected in Staticals, and not inflected in Continuatives! Now, the fact is, that it is just to indicate duration or continuity (and, occasionally, a habitual state) that the particle or verbal adjective is changed into an adverb and inflected. This is evident from such forms as المنافعة على المنافعة والمنافعة والمناف

- c) Compounds formed with the Perfect Participle.
- 214. A perfect participle, used as an abstract substantive in the Accusative or the Formative, is prefixed to one of the verbs کرّنا 'to make,' خاصّنا 'to go,' and 'خرّنا 'to desire,' and the compound verb thus formed assumes an intransitive character.¹ Such compounds are of two kinds:

<sup>1</sup> Hence these verbs are never constructed passively with the Agent case in the tenses formed with the perfect participle (see § 185): e.g. woh chupke but-kī tarah baithe suna kī, 'she seated silent, like a statue, continued to listen;' ek muddat talak us gam-men royā kiye, 'for a long period they continued to mourn in that affliction; main tamam din aur tamam rat pani-men hath pa'on mara kiya, 'I kept striking (out) my hands and legs in the water the whole day and the whole night.' Similarly if any verbal noun be combined with a transitive verb in the same way, the compound verb is intransitive: e.g. do ādmī dekhō'ī diye, 'two men appeared' (gave an appearance); admī kī awaz sund'ī dī, 'a man's voice was heard.' This, it may be observed, is directly opposed to the teaching of European grammarians. If however the grammarians simply confined themselves to laying down incorrect or unsound rules, the offence might be pardoned; but when they pronounce the composition of standard authors "ungrammatical" because it does not conform to those rules (as a recent writer does in more than one instance), the offence becomes unpardonable. We may here remark that if there is one point about which an educated native is not likely to be mistaken, it is the use of the Agent case.

### 1) FREQUENTATIVES OR CONTINUATIVES.

These denote the frequent, continual, or habitual performance of an act, and are formed: a) by adding the verb to a perfect participle, which (being the direct object of the verb) retains the nominative form of the masculine singular under all circumstances: e.g.

jāyā karnā, 'to go frequently,' 'to keep going' (lit. 'to make the going').

بيچا كُرْنا bechā karnā, 'to sell habitually.' رويا كُرْنا royā karnā, 'to weep perpetually,' 'to continue weéping.' عُسنا كُرْنا sunā karnā, 'to continue listening.' wŏh sunā kī, 'she kept listening.'

b) By adding the verb  $\forall \Rightarrow$  'to go,' to a perfect participle used as an abstract substantive; but in this case the verb being *neuter*, the participle is put in the Formative: *e.g.* 

chale jānā, 'to keep moving or walking on' (lit. 'to go on with or in walking').

kiye jānā, 'to continue or go on doing.'

### 2) DESIDERATIVES.

These are formed by adding the verb  $\Rightarrow ch\bar{a}hn\bar{a}$ , 'to wish or desire,' to a perfect participle used as a verbal noun in the Accusative, and hence uninflected. They express the desire to perform the act or enter the state signified by the participial noun: e.g.

بایا چاهنا چاهنا چاهنا چاهنا چاهنا خاهنا خاهنا dekhā-chāhnā, 'to wish to see.' ویکها چاهنا parhā-chāhnā, 'to wish to read.' مرا چاهنا marā-chāhnā, 'to wish to die.'

The same forms are also commonly employed to express the fact of an act or state being imminent: e.g. وُهُ جَايا چَاهِّتِي "wǒh jāyā-chāhtā hai, 'he is about to go;" وَعُ سُرا چَاهِّتِي "wòh marā chāhtī hai, 'she is about to die; وي بهاكا چَاهِّتِي "we bhāgā-chāte the, 'they were on the point of running away.'

Rem. a. In these compounds the participles of the verbs יל jānā, 'to go,' and יל marnā, 'to die,' always take the regular forms בוֹן jāyā and ית marā.

 going walking' (the perfect part. may in most cases be conveniently rendered into English by the imperfect); that of the second, 'the fox, lying in wait, was moving about;' and in the third sentence  $j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$  is used in the sense of  $hon\bar{a}$ , so that the translation is, 'I was becoming dead,' etc., i.e. 'I was dying,' etc. As in the case of the imperfect participle, the inflected form of the perf. part. denotes a prolonged or continued act or state: e.g. i.e. chale-jana, 'keep walking on' (vide §. 213).

d) Compounds formed with Conjunctive Participles.

215. These are formed by prefixing a conjunctive participle, commonly  $\sqsubseteq le$ , of the verb  $len\bar{a}$ , 'to take,' to an intransitive verb of motion: e.g.

لانا le-ānā (by contraction, لانا lānā), 'to come with,' 'to bring' (lit. 'having taken, to come').

le pahunchnā, 'to arrive or come with,' 'to bring'

Rem. That the first member in these compounds is the conjunctive participle, and not the verbal root, as English writers on Urdū grammar call it, is evident enough from the examples given above. Another error of existing grammars in respect of these compounds is the calling them "neuter." We need only point out that the native grammarians do not countenance this view, but term them "neuter." when the muta'addī ba-yak maf'ūl, 'transitives with one object;' and that in other languages—e.g. Latin and Arabic—such verbs are classed under the head of transitive verbs. That they cannot take the passive construction in the tenses formed with the perfect participle, is simply owing to the fact that the last member of the compound (which alone is conjugated), being intransitive, cannot form a passive participle:

this, however, is not the criterion of a transitive, but of a directly transitive verb.

216. Some verbs invariably take an inflected infinitive before them, the infinitive or verbal noun being either in the locative or dative case. These forms, which cannot be regarded as compound verbs, are termed by the grammarians Inceptives, Acquisitives, and Permissives. To these may also be added *Desideratives*.

### 1) INCEPTIVES,

in which an inflected infinitive precedes the verb الكُنا lagnā, 'to come in contact (with),' 'to take to,' and hence 'to begin:' e.g. بها گند لگا bhāgne lagā ( بها گند میں لگا bhāgne lagā), 'he took to, or began running;' وُه رونے لگتی هَي 'vǒh rone lagtī hai, 'she takes to, or begins, crying.'

## 2) Permissives.

### 3) Acquisitives.

An inflected infinitive is followed by the verb بان  $p\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ , to get or obtain,' and (with the infinitive), 'to obtain permission,' 'to be allowed;' e.g. آنے پایا  $\bar{a}ne~p\bar{a}y\bar{a}$  ( $=\bar{a}ne-ko~p\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ ), 'he was allowed, or got permission, to come;'  $j\bar{a}ne~p\bar{a}weg\bar{a}$ , 'he will be allowed to go.'

### 4) DESIDERATIVES.

#### REITERATIVES.

217. It remains to notice the compound forms termed Reiteratives by European grammarians. These consist in the asyndetic connection of two verbs, or participles (most commonly of two conjunctive participles, or two imperfect participles followed by the auxiliary verb), the second of which usually rhymes with the first, and is either synonymous with it, or without any signification: e.g. سوچ ساچ کر soch sāch kar, 'having reflected;' بول حال کر bol chāl kar, 'having conversed;' کو غیا کی samjhā bujhā kar, 'having explained,' or 'having reasoned;' جنير پُوچه له ba-gair pūchhe gachhe, 'without asking or enquiring;' أن دونون un donon zakhmiyon ko زخمیوں کو گاڑنے دائنے کی فِکر میں رھا gārne dābne kī fikr men rahā, 'he was busy with the thought of burying the two murdered persons;' کچھ. بیس ياس ,هي تهي kuchh pīs pās rahe the, 'they were pulverizing something;' مين هارا تهكا تها main hārā thaka thā, "I was worn out (and) tired;' اور وُد اینا گھر دیکھے بھالے aur woh apnā ghar dekhe bhāle, 'and he shall look after his own house.' In such constructions the last verb may sometimes be one which, although possessing a signification of its own, is rarely used except in combination with another

verb or particle; e.g. ها في bhālnā (from the Sanskrit root thṛi), in the last example, and in the word عمرة المعالمة ا

218. It is evident then from the preceding remarks that the compound verbs are, strictly speaking, of seven kinds; namely, Intensives, Potentials, Completives, Continuatives, Frequentatives, and Desideratives formed with the perfect participle, and Transitives formed by prefixing a past conjunctive participle to a verb denoting motion. In these the second member alone is conjugated, the first undergoing no change.

### CHAPTER IV.

PARTICLES OR INDECLINABLE WORDS ( \_\_\_\_\_ harf).

#### I. ADVERBS.

- 219. Adverbs are used to qualify any attribute. As in other languages, they may be classified according to their meaning and logical connection, or according to their origin. In the few adverbs which we purpose noticing we shall adopt both these principles of classification, giving the preference however to the latter. Persian and Arabic adverbs will, as far as possible, be kept distinct from those of the Hindī.
- 220. Original Hindī adverbs are not numerous. The following are some of the most common:
  - 1. Time: عن من أوة آي 'to-day' (Sanskrit adya).

    الله kal, 'yesterday, or to-morrow' (S. kalya).

    الله parson, 'the day before yesterday,' or 'the day after to-morrow' (S. paras + śvas).

    الله tarson, 'three days ago, or hence' (S. tri + śvas)

    الله narson, 'four days ago, or hence' (Dravid. nal, 'four' + son = śvas).

    إله jhat, 'instantly,' 'in a moment' (S. jhatiti).

    2. Manner: ترت turant, 'swiftly,' 'quickly' (S. tvaritam).

221. Some adverbs are originally nouns or adjectives in the locative case: e.g.

222. Nouns in the ablative case may also be used as adverbs (توميز tamīz, 'the specification'):

223. Adjectives in the *uninflected* form (*i.e.* in the nom. sing. masc.) are also employed as adverbs, generally when it is intended to express rather the quality of the agent as seen in the act, or after the act, than the quality of the act itself: e.g.

وَمُ بِرِّا سِيَانا هَي won barā siyānā hai, 'he is very knowing, or cunning.' وَمُ بِرُّا سَيَانا هَي won bahut achchhā likhtā hai, 'he writes very well.'

224. The following useful series of adverbs are formed from pronominal bases by means of certain affixes:

#### PRONOMINAL BASES.

	PROXIMATE DEMONSTRATIVE. a, i or y, ya.	REMOTE DEMONSTRATIVE.  4 OF w, wa.	interrogative. ka, ki or ky.	RELATIVE. $j, ja$ or $ji$ or $jy$ .	correlative. t, ta, ti or ty.
1. Time			په کې kab,	بې jab,	نب tab,
2. Place	يهاں yahān,	,wahān وهال	للا kahān,	jahān, جہاں	tahān, تہاں
3 Direction					
o. Direction	hither.	'thither.'	'whither?'	'whither.'	'thither.'
4. Manner	يون {yūn, yon, 'thus,' etc.	wū'n, wo'n, thus,' só.'	\ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \	jyūn, ميوں or {jyon, or jon, ec,	tyūn تيوں or {or tyon, ton.
2. Place 3. Direction	'now." يهال yahān, 'here.' أنهر idhar, 'hither.'	wahān, وهاں 'there.' 'thatar, دھر 'thither.'	kahān, كال kahān, 'where?' kidhar, كدهر 'whither?'	ب jab,  'when.'  'when.'  'when.'  'where.'  'whither.'  'whither.'  jyūn,  or { jyon,  or jon,  'as.'	tahā تهاں there تدھر tidha تِدھر thither

<sup>1</sup> The grammarians would have us believe that these series of adverbs are formed in Hindī or Urdū itself from the pronouns  $y \not\approx h$ ,  $w \not\approx h$ , etc., by adding the affixes b, etc.; but there can be no doubt that they are all derived from the Sanskrit, or that, at least, one or two of a series are derived from the corresponding Sanskrit series, and the rest formed after the same model. In the first series, for example, jab and tab spring, most probably, from the Sanskrit  $y \bar{a} v a t$  and  $t \bar{a} v a t$ , through the Pr $\bar{a} k r$  it  $j \bar{a} v a$ ,  $t \bar{a} v a$ ; and ab and kab were similarly formed afterwards. That this series is derived from jad, tad, etc., as some suppose, by change of d into b, is highly improbable, for d does not pass into b.

The termination  $h\bar{u}n$  of the second series corresponds to the Sanskrit  $sth\bar{u}ne$ , the loc. of  $sth\bar{u}na$ , 'place:' e.g.  $tah\bar{u}n$  =  $tatsth\bar{u}ne$ .  $H\bar{u}n$ , it may be observed, is in common use at the present day as a noun in the locative, signifying 'place,' 'house:' e.g. mere  $h\bar{u}n$   $\bar{u}n\bar{u}$ , 'come to my place or house;'  $s\bar{u}hib$  ke  $h\bar{u}n$   $j\bar{u}n\bar{u}$ , 'go to the gentleman's house;' not mere  $yah\bar{u}n$ , and  $s\bar{u}hib$  ke  $yah\bar{u}n$ .

The termination of the third series is not easy to trace. It would appear to correspond to the Sanskrit tas (idhar = itas), or to the Sanskrit affix ha (dha); e.g. idhar = iha; most probably to the latter, for the Persian word corresponding to idhar

is īdar = Zend idha = Sanskrit iha.

The termination of the fourth series is supposed to spring from the Sanskrit affix that or tham: e.g., ittham = Prakrit ia = Hindī yoi; but we prefer to derive it from the Sanskrit evam (the Prakrit evvam), and to suppose that the other adverbs of the sories are formed after the model of it.

Rem. Instead of the forms kab, jib, tab, in the first series, the forms kad, jad, tad, are occasionally used (in Hindi commonly), and the first vowel of the series idhar, etc., is occasionally lengthened, e.g. jidhar. etc.

225. The adjectives derived from the same pronouns (§ 156) are also employed (in the inflected form generally) as adverbs of manner and degree (measure, quantity): e.g.

aise, 'like this,' 'thus,' 'so.' م إِنَّتَ or إِنَّتَ itne or itte, 'as much as this,' 'so much.' من فيسي waise, 'like that,' 'so.' عنه أثّن or عنه أثّن utne or utte, 'as much as that," 'so much.' kaise, 'in what way?' 'how?' کیسے or کتابے or kitte, 'how much or many?' jitne or jitte, 'as.' جتن jitne or jitte, 'as taise, 'in that way,' 'so.' مِتَّا or تِتَّانِي titne or titte, 'so much.'

Occasionally however, like other adjectives (§ 223), they are used in the uninflected (masc.) form.

Rem. Of the double forms itne or itte, etc., the first are more generally used.

226. The pronominal adverbs, like most other adverbs, may be intensified by the addition to them of the emphatic particle هِي  $\hbar ar{\imath}$  or هِي  $\hbar ar{\imath} n$ , the latter form being employed with those of the second and fourth series. 1) from the first series we get:

abhī, 'this very instant,' 'just now,' 'immediately.' كيمِي لربيس kabhī nahīn, 'never'). jabhī, 'hence,' for such a reason' (frequently used for tabhī). تباي tabhī, 'at that very time,' 'thence,' 'for that reason.'

Rem. Hū would appear to be an old form of hī; but it is now only

used, occasionally, with the derivatives from the interrogative pronoun: e.g. کبیر kabhū = کبیر kabhī.

2) In the second series, the termination  $h\bar{a}\dot{n}$  is elided before the emphatic particle  $h\bar{i}\dot{n}$  is added; in some cases though the nasal of  $h\bar{a}\dot{n}$  is retained: e.g.

يبيس yahīn (or yanhīn), 'this very place,' 'just here.' وهِي wahīn (or wanhīn or wunhīn), 'that very place,' 'just there.' وهِي kahīn, 'anywhere' كبيل kahīn nahīn, 'nowhere'). خبيس jahīn, 'wheresoever.' جبيس tahīn, 'that same or very place.'

Rem. These forms are all contractions, and the two nasals, though not usually written, may often be distinctly heard in the pronunciation of a native, especially in the words yanhin and wunhin; it is not correct therefore to say that they are formed "by changing  $h\bar{a}n$  (or  $\bar{a}n$ ) into  $h\bar{n}n$  (or  $\bar{n}n$ )." It may be observed further, that, with the exception of  $\lambda h\bar{n}n$  (or  $\lambda h\bar{n}n$ ) somewhere, somehow, they are never used as adverbed further, as some grammarians say they are.

3) Examples of the fourth series are:

يونّېيى yūnhīn or yonhīn, 'just this way,' 'without any ground or reason.'

يُونْهِيس wūnhīn or wonhīn, 'in that very way,' 'on that very instant.' جونّم بيس jonhīn, 'as,' 'as soon as.'

Rem. These forms never convey a local signification, as the grammarians assert.

- 4) The remaining series take  $h\bar{\imath}$  after them for emphasis; as المعروبي  $idhar-h\bar{\imath}$ , 'in this very direction,' 'to this place;' ايسے هي  $aise-h\bar{\imath}$ , 'precisely like this;' ايسے هي  $kaise-h\bar{\imath}$ , 'in whatever way,' 'however,' 'how—soever;' کِشے هِي  $kilne-h\bar{\imath}$ , 'how much soever.'
- 227. Adverbs of time and place may be used as nouns, and put in the genitive and ablative cases. With the

genitive postposition they become adjectives: e.g. أب كي ab-kī daf a, 'this time;' يبال كے باشندي yahān-ke bā-shinde, 'the people of this place.' An adverb of time in the ablative changes its signification from a point to duration of time; as كل كل كل الله kal-se, 'since yesterday;' كب ك kab-se, 'since when?' كب له tab-se, 'since then:' and an adverb of place changes its signification from rest in, or motion to, to motion from a place: e.g. يمال كل يوالمقاد yahān-se, 'from this place,' 'hence.'

Rem. Adverbs of degree are said by some writers on Urdū grammar to be used in the locative case, and to change their signification to that of relative time, e.g. itne-men, 'meanwhile.' It is however more correct to regard itne, etc., in such cases as adjectives qualifying a noun of time understood: e.g. itne 'arse men. Similarly, when itne-men signifies 'for so much' (men being here used for ko, as it often is), itne is an adjective qualifying a noun of price or value understood.

- 228. Adverbs of time may also take the postposition تك tak ('till,' 'up to') after them, to signify the point up to which something lasts or continues: e.g. كل تك kal-tak, 'up to yesterday,' نا على الله tak, 'till now,' 'as yet;' كب تك kab tak, 'till when?' 'how long?'
- 229. The same postposition after an adverb of place gives it the signification of motion towards the place, and also of degree: يهال تك yahān tak, 'up to, or as far as, this place,' 'to this degree,' 'so much so;' كهال تك kahān-tak 'up to where,' 'to what extent?' 'how far?'
- 230. The locative case of the demonstrative and relative pronouns may be used adverbially: e.g. اس پر is-par, 'on this,' 'hereupon;' جس پر jis-par, 'whereupon.'

- 231. The pronouns, followed by the postpositions النبو, and النبو, and النبو, may be used as causal adverbs: e.g. is vāste, 'on account of this,' itherefore;' کس لیب النبو النبو, 'on account of what?' wherefore?'
- 232. The conjunctive participle is sometimes used adverbially: e.g.  $j\bar{a}n-b\bar{u}jh-kar$ , 'wittingly,' 'of set purpose.' This participle in many other cases also may be conveniently rendered by an English adverb.¹
- 233. Compound adverbs are of frequent occurrence in Urdū. They generally consist of a repeated adverb or noun (the negative na being sometimes inserted between them to add indefiniteness, etc., to the idea), or of two similar nouns or adverbs, or of elliptical phrases.

The following are a few examples:

دهيري المناز ولا المن

<sup>1</sup> We may here point out that \_\_\_\_\_\_ chupke is not a conjunctive participle, as some of the grammarians term it, but the inflected form of the adjective chupkā, 'silent.' As there is no such verb as chupnā, there can be no conjunctive participle of the form chupke.

بهت پت jhat-pat, 'instantly.' جهت پت رات و دِن rāt-o-din, ) 'night and day,' 'incessantly.' في رات له din-rāt, ) 'hān to, 'yes, indeed.'

For the adverbs formed from the numerals see § 62 et seg.

#### PERSIAN ADVERBS.

- 234. Persian adverbs are not to be distinguished from other parts of speech by termination or form; and only a few of them are genuine adverbs. They may be classed according to their origin, as
  - a) Nouns in the Accusative Case:
  - - وصارا  $kaz\bar{u}$ - $r\bar{u}$  (= ازفصا المحارة  $kaz\bar{u}$ ), by the will of God,' providentially.'
  - 2) Compound Substantives; as

يَّ يَضَاكُرُ kazā·kār (= az kārĕ kazā), 'by the work of God,' 'providentially.'

ناگيان nāgahān, or ناگان nāgāh, 'suddeniy.'

shab-o roz, 'night and day,' 'always.'

har roz, 'daily,'

" sar-ā-sar, 'altogether,' 'throughout.' سراسر

مِلْ كلام مِ hāṣilĕ kalām, 'the gist of the matter,' 'in brief.

## b) Substantives with a Preposition.

The preposition most commonly met with in Urdū is ba, 'with or by;' but others also occur: e.g.

c). ADJECTIVES, SIMPLE OR COMPOUND.

### d). GENUINE ADVERES.

# e). Interrogative: eg. إِلَّ āyā, 'whether?' (Lat. num?).

Rem. The adverb of probability and doubt (which is most commonly used in Urdū) is شايع shāyad, 'may-be,' 'perhaps.' It is the third pers. sing. of the aorist of the verb shāyistan, 'to be suitable.' For the adverbs formed by means of the affix مناب قدم ana, and the numeral adverbs, see the section on Persian Constructions.

#### ARABIC ADVERBS.

235. The adverbs borrowed from the Arabic may be classed under five heads: 1) Particles; 2) Substantives in the nominative case; 3) Substantives (simple or compound) in the accusative case; 4) nouns in the genitive case governed by a preceding preposition; 5) Phrases.

### 1) PARTICLES.

Extremely few of these occur in Urdū. Examples are: fakat, 'only,' 'merely' (lit. 'and enough'); \$\lambda la \tilde{u}\$ 'not' (used in composition alone).

## 2) SUBSTANTIVES IN THE NOMINATIVE.

These are not numerous in Urdū. Examples are: بِعْد ba'd, and مِنْ يَعْد mim-ba'd, 'afterwards;' فَبُل kabl, 'before.'

## 3) Substantives in the Accusative.

The accusative is notably the adverbial case in Arabic, and hence such adverbs are of common occurrence in Urdū: e.g.

Rem. Occasionally the tanwin is changed to fatha, the accusative taking the pausal form of the Arabic: e.g. לואָכָן zāhirā, 'apparently.'

If the noun is determined by having the article al prefixed, or by being put in the construct state, it loses the tanwin, and (in Urdū and Persian) in the first case, the final vowel also: e.g.

```
البته al-batta (for البته albattata), 'decidedly.' البته al-hāl, 'at the present time,' 'just now.' المخرف al-garaz, 'the gist or purport (of it),' 'in short.' التحصية al-kiṣṣa, 'the story,' 'in short.' التحصية ākhira'l amr, 'at last,' 'finally.' المحرا الكلام hāṣila'l kalām (or, more commonly, after the Persian, حاصل الكلام hāṣile kalām), 'the gist of the matter,' 'to sum up,' 'in brief.'
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**Rem.** In some cases, even where the noun is not defined, the **tanwin** is dropped in Urdū: e.g.  $\vec{a} \underline{kh} ir$ , 'at last,' for  $\vec{b} = \vec{a} \underline{kh} ir$ .

### 4) Noun Governed by a Preposition.

### 5) Phrases:

Such as من وعن min wa 'an, 'circumstantially.'

فبرا  $fabih\bar{a}$  (the conj.  $fa + \text{prep. } bi + \text{pron. } h\bar{a}$ ), 'well and good.'

ya'ne (properly ya'nī; third pers. sing. masc. Imperf. of the verb 'and), 'that is to say,' 'to wit,' 'namely' (lit. 'it signifies').

كماينْبغي ka-mā-yambagī (prep. ka + pron.mā + vero yambagī),

'as is proper,' 'fittingly' (lit. 'like that which is

proper').

### II. PREPOSITIONS AND POSTPOSITIONS.

236. The Urdū prepositions are, for the most part, originally adverbs (that is to say, Hindī nouns in the locative or ablative case, determined by a following genitive), or Persian and Arabic nouns used adverbially in the construct accusative: hence the use of the form  $\leq ke$  of the genitive affix when the preposition (or governing noun) is masculine.

237. The genuine *prepositions* are nearly all Persian or Arabic, and invariably precede the noun they govern.

The other prepositions as commonly follow as precede the governed noun.

238. The following are real postpositions, which invariably follow the noun they govern, and for the most part require that noun to be in the Formative:

```
بنا binā, 'without' (Sanskrit vinā).

par, 'on,' 'upon' (S. upari).

tak, 'till,' 'up to,' 'as far as,' 'inclusive' (S. daghna?).

بنا ta'īn, 'up to,' 'to' (S. sthāne:—ta'īn governs the genitive).

suddhān, 'along with' (S. sārddham).

samet, 'together with,' 'having' (S. sameta).

se, 'from,' 'with.' 'by' (S. sachā, or perhaps the Prāk. gen. affix he).

Aar, 'by means of,' 'on account of,' 'by the name of,' (S. kṛite).

Sko, 'to,' 'for the sake of,' 'for,' etc. (S. kṛite).

Li'e, 'for the sake of,' 'for' (from the S. root rā, ' to give:' it generally governs the genitive).

men, 'in' (S. madhye).
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Rem. The postposition بن binā, as also its contraction بن bin, may either precede or follow the noun in the Formative: e.g. بن دانے پانے bin dāne pānī, 'without food.' The word که kar, as a postposition (in which character it is not noticed by the grammarians), is distinct from the affix که kar of the past conjunctive participle; examples of its use are: که همارا خانه الله کر مشهور تها ghar hamārā khāna'ē allāh-kar mashhār thā, 'my (lit. our) house was famous on account of the house of God; بحس نه اپنے تئیں سوداگر بچه کر مشهور کیا تها jis-ne apne ta'īn saudāgar-bacha-kar mashhār kiyā thā, 'who had made himself known by (the title of) a merchant's son;

wwijhe kallū-kar pukārā-karte hain, 'they are in the habit of calling me by (the name of) Kallū.' The postposition  $\leq ke$  is generally supposed to be, in every instance, merely the inflected form of the genitive affix  $k\bar{a}$  with one of the postpositions يا المقام ا

239. The following postpositions: (and perhaps others besides), when they follow a noun, may optionally govern it in the Formative or the Genitive:

E.g. درّوازی باهر  $darw\bar{a}ze\ b\bar{a}hir$  (or درّوازی باهر  $darw\bar{a}ze\ ke\ b\bar{a}hir$ ); 'outside the door;' الله bagair, 'without him;'  $b\bar{a}dsh\bar{a}h$  بادّشاه پاس  $b\bar{a}dsh\bar{a}h$   $b\bar{a}dsh\bar{a}h$   $b\bar{a}dsh\bar{a}h$   $b\bar{a}dsh\bar{a}h$   $b\bar{a}dsh\bar{a}h$   $b\bar{a}dsh\bar{a}h$   $b\bar{a}dsh\bar{a}h$   $b\bar{a}dsh\bar{a}h$   $b\bar{a}dsh\bar{a}h$ 

In such constructions as اس المناء is li'e, اس المناء is wāste, اس المناء sabab, etc., signifying for this reason or cause, the pronoun is used as an adjective qualifying the postposition in its character of a noun, and hence must necessarily occur in the Formative; but if any other noun, expressed or understood, is qualified by the pronominal adjective, or if the pronoun be personal, it must be put in the genitive; as المناط على المناط ا

with me; بيت بيت بيت بيت بيت vīth pīchhe, 'behind (one's) back; بائرى تال pāon tale, 'under foot;' عاجت مُوافِق hājat muwā-fiķ, 'suitable to (one's) need.'

But if they precede the noun, they invariably govern the Genitive: e.g. میری پاس mere pās; باهِر درّوازی کے bāhir darwāze ke; میری پاسک ba-gair uske; تلے پاؤں کے tale pā'on ke; موافق حاجت کے muwāfik hājat ke.

Rem. When, however, بغير ba-gair governs a verbal noun or an abstract substantive with the force of a verbal noun, this is put in the Formative, even if the postposition precedes: as بغير تحقيق كيد ba-gair taḥķīķ-kiye, 'without having ascertained,' بغير پروانگي ba-gair parwā-nagī, 'without permission.'

240. The following are the principal prepositions, or postpositions, which, being masculine nouns in the Locative, Ablative, or Accusative case, require the affix  $\leq$  to be used with the Genitive they govern:

## 1) HINDI.

اگر قروو, 'before,' 'in front' (Sanskrit agre).

ال ته توجه به توجه ب

1 It will be seen from the examples given that many Persian and Arabic nouns are treated like Hindī nouns, and put in the Locative or Ablative case to form postpositions: e.g. مراك عن يع zariye, غري zimme, etc. In some instances moreover the Ablative or Locative postposition is expressed.

sire, 'at the extremity of,' (S. śiras).

sang, 'along with' (S. sanga).

kane, 'to,' 'near to' (S. karna, 'edge').

māre, 'on account of,' 'through' (lit. 'stricken with,' from mārnā).

ألاف المقال المقا

## 2) PERSIAN.

וצׁכּע andar, 'inside of,' within' (= S. antara).

barābar, 'on a level with,' 'equal to' (bar + ā + bar, 'breast to breast').

banābar or binābar, 'on account of' (Ar. bina, 'building' + prep. bar, 'upon').

juz, 'except,' 'with the exception of,' (contraction of judā + az).

The following passage is extracted from a copy of the 'Alīgarh (Allygurh) Institute Gazette: ham musalmānon aur hindū'on donon kī us ātish-bāzī kī nisbat likhte hain jo unke hān shādī men hotī hai.

We may add that in the matter of this use of  $h\bar{a}n$ , the people of Lakhnau are at one with their brethren of Dehlī, and hence its uniform usage in all parts of Hindustan proper.

The more common form in which the Persian prepositions occur is that of an inseparable (and genuine) preposition prefixed to a Persian or Arabic noun; the compound in such cases being equivalent to the Hindī ablative or locative case: e.g.

از رُوي المتاروي الم

3) ARABIC.

باعث bā'is, 'because of.' باعث badle, 'in exchange for.'

عن b'ad, 'after.' hawale, 'in the charge or care of.' ين <u>khilāf</u>, 'in opposition to.' ن, غ zariye, 'by means of,' 'through the medium of.' zimme, 'under the charge or responsibility of.' sabab, 'because of,' 'by reason of.' يومًا sivā, ) 'over and above,' 'besides.' sile 'alāwa, 'in addition to,' besides.' ¿iwaz, 'instead of,' 'for.' "kabl, 'before.' پر پن karīb, 'near.' la'ik, 'suitable for,' worthy of.' muta'allik, 'depending on,' 'connected with.' mushābih, 'like,' 'resembling.' mūjib, 'because of,' 'by reason of.' muţābiķ, 'in conformity to.' muwāfik, 'agreeable or suitable to' (also governs the Formative).

241. A few of them are compounds, consisting of an inseparable preposition prefixed to a noun in the genitive, or of a preposition following a pronoun: *e.g.* 

بدُون bidūn, 'without' (prep. bi + dūn).

pigair (or with pers. prep. ba-gair), 'without.'

mā-bain, 'what is between' (from mā + prep. bain).

mā-taḥt, 'that which is under' (mā + prep. taḥt).

<sup>1</sup> Siwā is regarded by native grammarians as an exceptive particle, united as muzāf, or determined noun, to another noun. The same is the case with the words by warā and mā-warā, 'beyond,' 'except.'

- 242. The following are a few examples of prepositions or postpositions which are originally *feminine* nouns, and hence require the affix ki with the genitive they govern:
  - or, 'towards,' in the direction of.' بران المستان or, 'towards,' in the direction of.' بران المستان jagah, 'in place of,' 'in the room of.'
  - 2) Persian: بابت bābat, 'concerning,' 'for,' 'on account of.' زبانی خمله zabānī, 'from the mouth of.' ba-jihat, 'on account of,' 'by reason of.' ba-daulat, 'by means of.'
  - 3) Arabic: جانب jānib, 'in the direction of,' 'towards.'

     jihat, 'on account of.'

     khātir, 'for the sake of.'

     simt,

     in the direction of,' 'towards.'

     tarah, 'in the manner of.'

     ma'rifat, 'by means of.'

     inisbat, 'in reference to,' 'in respect of.'
- 243. The feminine prepositions, when they precede the governed noun, require  $\leq ke$  for the genitive affix of that noun: e.g. عاد خواز کی طرف taraf jahāz-ke, 'in the direction of the ship' (but عاز کی طرف jahāz kī ṭaraf, when the word ṭaraf follows the governed noun): similarly عاد المناب mānind larke ke, 'like a child,' بعدد أسك māsl sher-ke, 'after the likeness of a tiger,' although the words mānind, madad, and misl are feminine. This construction will be more fully noticed in the Syntax.

#### GENUINE PREPOSITIONS.

# 244. These are borrowed from the Persian and Arabic.

## a) Persian.

ن مع, 'from,' 'by,' 'with.'

or خب ba, 'with,' 'by,' 'in,' etc. (the former being the inseparable form).

الب bā, 'with,' 'along with.

الب ba, 'without.'

الب bar, 'on,' 'upon' (= Sanskrit upari).

الت tā, 'till,' 'up to,' 'as far as.'

الم dar, 'in' (contracted from andar).

Rem. To these some add pesh, 'before,' zabar, 'over,' and zer, 'below;' but the first is an adverb, and generally takes the prep. at after it; as pesh az zin, 'prior to this,' 'before this;' and the two last are compounds: e.g. zabar = az or zi + bar;  $zer = zi + \overline{z}r$ .

## b) ARABIC.

245. The Arabic prepositions are of two kinds; separable and inseparable.

## 1) Inseparable.

bi, 'in,' 'at,' 'by,' 'with,' etc. ( $bil\bar{a} = bi + \text{neg. } l\bar{a}$ , 'not,' = 'without'). bi, 'to,' 'for,' 'on account of,' (before pronom. suffixes it becomes la). bi, 'as,' 'like.'

# 2) SEPARABLE.

#### III. CONJUNCTIONS.

247. Conjunctions may be divided into the following classes:

## 1) Connective.

## 2) ADVERSATIVE.

## 3) Exceptive.

سگر magar, 'unless,' 'except,' 'save' (= ma, 'not' + gar, 'if'). 
$$\label{eq:magar}$$
  $\label{eq:magar}$  illā, 'except,' 'save'(= in, 'if' + lā, 'not').

## 4) CONDITIONAL.

## 5) Concessive.

## 6) CAUSAL.

عُونْكِهُ مَّ عُونْكِهُ مَّ مَعُونَكِهُ مَّ مَعُلَمَةُ مَا مَعُونُكِهُ مَا مَعُونُكِهُ مَا مَعُونُكِهُ مَعُ مَع عُونُكِهُ مُعَلِمُ م عُمُونُكِهُ مُعَلِمُ مُعَلِم

## 7) CONCLUSIVE.

بنابران banā-bar-ān, 'on that ac-count,' 'therefore.'

phir, 'then,' 'therefore.'

pas, 'hence.'

hence.'

ti-hāzā, 'for this reason.'

## 8) FINAL.

لَّ tā, and كِلَّ tā-ki, 'to the end that,' 'in order that.' سادا ma-bād-ā, 'lest,' lit. 'may it not be.'

#### IV. INTERJECTIONS.

248. Interjections are mostly sounds or cries expressive of emotion. They may be divided into the following classes:

# 1) Assent.

E.g. های  $h\bar{u}n$ , or گوی  $h\bar{u}n$ , 'yes!' اچّها  $achchh\bar{a}$ , 'very well!' جِي $j\bar{i}$ , 'yes!' (respectful).

## 2) APPROVAL;

as شاباش  $sh\bar{a}b\bar{a}sh$  (= شاد باش  $sh\bar{a}d$   $b\bar{a}sh$ , 'be happy!'), 'bravo!' wāh  $w\bar{a}h$ , 'well done!' 'bravo!'

## 3) Sorrow or Pain;

as اري are, 'Oh!' ري re, 'Oh!' (always used as an affix); من قَلَم أَن أَلُهُ مَا يُع اللهُ الل

'woe!' 'alas!' افْسوس 'afsos, 'pity!' 'alas!' حَيف haif,
'ah!' 'alas!' (chiefly used in poetry).

# 4) SURPRISE;

as اوهو  $\bar{a}h\bar{a}$ , or اوهو  $oh\bar{o}$ , 'Ha!' 'Ho!' 'Strange!' والا والا  $w\bar{a}$ , 'How fine!' 'strange!' كيا خُوب  $ky\bar{a}$   $kh\bar{u}b$ , 'How excellent!' كيا خُوب  $subh\bar{a}n$   $all\bar{a}h$ , 'Good God!'

# 5) AVERSION OR CONTEMPT;

as جهي chhī, 'fie!' ڏر 'dur, 'away!' 'avaunt!' اري are, 'O!' (you fellow).

## 6) Longing;

as كَشُكِ kāsh-ki, or كَاشُكِ kāsh-ke, 'would that' (utinam!).

7) Desire for the Presence or Attention of a Person; as غير ai, 'O!' ام وت 'o, 'O!' عوت hot, 'Ho!' (vulgar,—always follows the object of address) مرو are, 'O!' 'Ho!' كو لو, or أو the, or أو the, or أو there!' 'enough!' 'peace!'

## CHAPTER V.

#### DERIVATION OF WORDS.

- 249. We purpose, in this chapter, to treat of such Hindī themes as have been derived by modifying forms obtained from the Sanskrit through the Prākrit, as also such as are derived by rules peculiar to the Hindī. With unmodified Sanskrit forms, such as pālak, ānandit, balwān, gopāl, etc., which occur in modern Hindī, we have little or no concern. For Persian and Arabic themes we must refer the reader to the section on Persian and Arabic constructions.
- 250. Derivative words may be classed under the two heads of *primary* and *secondary* formations, according as they are derived from *verbal roots*, or from *nouns*.

#### I. ABSTRACT NOUNS.

- a) PRIMARY FORMATIONS.
- 251. The simple root of a verb is, in many cases, used as an abstract substantive: e.g.

<sup>1</sup> Nothing like an attempt to give all the themes occurring in Hindī is here made. This would be an almost impossible undertaking, so great is the change which the wear and tear of centuries, so to speak, has effected in most Hindī words. The affixes noticed are mostly those of frequent occurrence, respecting which there can be no doubt, whatever difference of opinion may exist as to the sources from which they are derived. We would observe also that, as in the case of the pronominal series ab, kab, jab, etc., it is highly probable that one derived affix has, in each case, served as a model for others, and that these have been used even with words of non-Aryan origin.

In a few words the root vowel is lengthened: e.g.

اتار utār, 'descent;' Inf. اُتْرَنا utarnā, 'to descend.' مالله chāl, 'motion,' 'gait,' etc.; ,, الله ماله ماله mel, 'mingling,' 'intimacy;' ,, ولله milnā, 'to mingle,' etc.

252. Other abstract nouns are formed from the root, with or without lengthening the root vowel, by means of the following affixes:

1) 
$$\stackrel{\frown}{=} \bar{a}$$
 (= S. affix a); as—

يهبرا pherā, 'turning,' etc.; Inf. پهبرا phernā, 'to turn.' إنا بهبرا jhagarnā, 'to quarrel.' بهبران chhāpā, 'stamp,' 'print;' بهائنا ولله chhāpā, 'to print,' etc. سيلا melā, 'a gathering,' 'a fair;',

Rem. In some instances the masc. termination ā is changed to the fem. ī, to express some slight difference of signification; as pherī, 'going about,' 'hawking.'

2) 
$$\[ \] n\bar{a}, \[ \] = an, \[ \] = \bar{a}n \ (= S. \ affix \ ana). \]$$

The first of these is found in infinitives. Examples of the second are:

chalan, 'gait,' 'conduct;' Inf. چلن chalnā.
سرنا , maran, 'dying;' ,, سرنا milan, 'mixing with,' 'meeting;' ,, سانه milnā.

In the third the vowel of the affix an is lengthened: e.g.

Here may also be noticed the affix  $= \overline{\imath}$ , which is added to the roots of causal verbs to signify 'cost of,' 'expense for,' etc.; for the sister

dialects afford proof of this affix being a mere contraction of نبي  $n\bar{\imath}$ , the fem. form of the affix  $\cup$   $n\bar{a}$ : e.g.

پسوائي pīswā'ī, 'price paid for grinding' پيسّنا) بسوائي pīswā).

charā'ī, 'price paid for grazing' (چرائي charānā).

dhulā'ī, 'price paid for washing' (مُلائي dhulānā).

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Rem. The affix  $t\bar{\imath}$ , as will appear further on, is also employed in secondary formations.

The original of all these forms is the Sanskrit affix atu (which Bopp traces to the infinitive affix tu): the first, though common in the Urdū and Hindī of Southern India, is rarely used in the North, where the second and third (in which h and w are euphonic) are very common. Examples are:

 In the case of the affix  $\tilde{a}'o$ , the t of the affix atu has been elided, and the final vowel lengthened. It is an affix of very frequent occurrence. Examples are:

يجاؤ bachā'o, 'protection,' 'defence;' Inf. نجاؤ bachnā, 'to escape.' چاؤ ماء chaṛhā'o, 'ascent;' برهاؤ chhiṛkā'o, 'ascent;' برهاؤ chhiṛkā'o, 'sprinkling;' بهوائال chhoṛā'o, 'release;' بهوائال جهوائال chhoṛā'o, 'release;' بهوائال جهوائال بهوائال بهائل من chhorā'o, 'release;' بهوائال بهائل من مناسبة المناسبة المناسبة

Rem. a. Many masculines in  $\bar{a}$ 'o have corresponding feminines in  $\bar{a}$ 'ī, with the same signification; as چڙهائي chaṛhā'ī, 'ascent.'

Rem. b. The affix āhaṭ (differently derived however) is also employed in secondary formations, as will be shown further on.

Rem. c. The affix ā'o often takes the form āwā in rustic speech: e.g. مَهُورُا وَا مُهُورُا وَا مُؤْمِرُ وَالْمُؤْمِرُ وَا مُؤْمِرُ وَا مُؤْمِرُونِ وَا مُؤْمِرُونِ وَا مُؤْمِرُ والْمُؤْمِرُ وَالْمُؤْمِرُ وَالْمُؤُمِرُ وَالْمُؤْمِرُونُ وَالْمُؤْمِرُونُ وَالْمُؤْمِرُونُ وَالْمُؤُمُونُ وَالْمُؤْمِرُونُ وَالْمُورُ وَالْمُؤْمِ وَالْمُؤْمِ وَل

Rem. d. Native grammarians add  $\bar{a}p$  or p to the affixes forming abstract nouns from verbal roots; but we cannot find this termination in any word except  $mil\bar{a}p$  (the only example adduced by them), and this is in all probability a mere modification of the Sanskrit  $mel\bar{a}paka$ .

## b) SECONDARY FORMATIONS.

253. Abstract nouns are derived from substantives and adjectives by means of the following affixes:

<sup>1</sup> This affix is incorrectly written  $\bar{a}w$  by some of the grammarians. It is usual in Hindi, no doubt, to represent final o, after a vowel, by  $\overline{\mathbf{q}}$ , but this is a mere compendium scripture; the letter is pronounced o all the same.

2) تى 
$$t\bar{\imath}$$
 (= S. affix  $ti$ ).

This affix, as we have shown, occurs in primary formations; an example of a secondary formation is—

Rem. It is possible however that the origin of this affix is the Sanskrit affix  $t\bar{a}$ .

3) 
$$0$$
  $\leq \bar{a}n$  (= S. affix iman).

This affix is derived by eliding the initial i and the m of the Sanskrit affix iman. It forms abstract nouns from adjectives denoting an inherent quality, but it rarely occurs in Urdū; one example is—

Rem. In a few Hindī words the affix iman takes the form  $m\tilde{a}$ : e.g. garimā, 'weight,' importance.'

The origin of all these affixes is the Sanskrit affix tva; e.g. 1)  $tva = vva = ppa = p\bar{a}$ : 2) tva = Prākrit tvaṇa = vvaṇa = ppana = pan and  $pan\bar{a}$ : 3)  $tva = tta = tta = \bar{a}t$ , whence  $\bar{a}hat$ , by insertion of h for euphony. They are all of frequent occurrence. A long yowel in the base may be shortened, and a final vowel dropped, before the affixes  $p\bar{a}$ , pan,  $pan\bar{a}$  are added: e.g.

نَّوْهَا لِي مَا مُوْرِهَا مُورِهَا būrhā-pā, ) 'old age,' from مُورِّهَا لِي būrhā, 'old,' 'an old man.' مُورِّهَا لِي مُلْمُانِي chhoṭā-pan, ) 'littleness,' 'infancy,' 'childhood,' from لَا عَالَى مُنْ مَا لِلْهُ مِنْ مُلْمَانِي chhuṭā-pā, مُورِّتَا لِي chhuṭā-pā, مُنْلُقِينا chhuṭā-pā, ) 'little.'

التِكُلِي larak-pan, ) 'childishness,' 'childhood,' from لتِكا لمرة larkā-pan, ) 'child.'

chiknāhat, 'greasiness,' 'smootnness,' from چگناهٿ 'greasy,' etc.

. karwāhat, 'bitterness,' from كَرُّوا karwā or karwā, 'bitter.'

Rem. The word الرَّكين is generally pronounced larkpan by the natives of India; but the dictionaries all give the pronunciation as larakpan.

The original affix *ika* is employed in Sanskrit to form adjectives; but in Hindī and Urdū it is occasionally used to form abstract substantives: *e.g.* 

thandak, ) 'coolness,' lit. 'that which makes coolness' الْهِنْدُّمَّةِ لِمُ الْهِنْدُّمِيُّةُ الْهِنْدُ الْهِنْدُ الْهِنْدُ الْهِنْدُ الْهِنْدُ الْهِنْدُ الْهِنْدُ الْهِنْدُ الْهُنْدُ الْهِنْدُ الْهُنْدُ اللَّهُ ال

The origin of this affix is probably the Sanskrit noun  $\tilde{a} \pm \tilde{a}$ , desire. It is added to a few nouns to form abstract substantives, a long vowel in the base being shortened before the affix is added, and final  $\tilde{a}$  coalescing with the  $\tilde{a}$  of the affix: e.g.

mīṭhās, 'sweetness,' from وسلة مستهاس mīṭhā, 'sweet' (S. mishṭāśā). كهال khaṭās (or khaṭṭās), 'acidity,' from كهال كهال المارة المارة

# II. NOUNS OF AGENCY, ATTRIBUTIVES, POSSESSIVES, APPELLATIVES.

## a) PRIMARY FORMATIONS.

254. The original of these affixes is the Sanskrit affix aka; whence by elision of ka, and compensatory lengthening of the preceding vowel, the affix  $\bar{a}$  is derived; thence  $w\bar{a}$  and  $h\bar{a}$  by prefixing w and h for euphony. Again, by elision of k, the form  $ay\bar{a}$  is obtained, and this is changed, through the influence of y, into  $aiy\bar{a}$ , in which ai is pronounced more like  $a\bar{i}$  than as the diphthong ai: from  $aiy\bar{a}$ , by prefixing a euphonic w, the affix  $waiy\bar{a}$  is obtained. They are all added to verbal roots to form nouns of agency, and attributives: e.g.

بَوْجَا bhūnjā, 'a parcher' (of grain), as in بَوْجَا bhar-bhūnjā, from an obsolete بَا يَعْنَا bhunjnā, 'to parch.'

gherā, 'a fence' (S. grāhaka, 'inclosing,' etc.), from گئيسرُا ghernā, 'to surround.'

dewā, 'giving,' 'a giver' (S. dōyakı), from دينا denā, 'to give.'

lewā, 'taking,' 'a taker,' from لينا lenā, 'to take.'

charwā-hā, 'a grazier,' from چرواها جرواها مهم charwā-hā, 'a grazier,' from چرواها

bantwaiyā, 'a sharer or divider,' from بنظوانا bantwanā, 'to portion out.'

gawaiyā, 'a singer,' from گويّا گويّا

In a few words the Sanskrit affix is preserved intact: e.g. گایک gāyak, 'a singer;' کاهک gāhak (S. grāhaka), 'a taker or seizer.'

These affixes correspond to the Sanskrit affix uka, the k of which is elided, and the preceding vowel lengthened by way of compensation. They are used to form nouns of agency and attributives: e.g.

بگازُو bigārā, 'a spoiler,' 'a ruiner,' from بگازُو bigārnā, 'to spoil.' بگازُو bhulā'ā, 'misleader,' 'misleading,' from بَيُلانَا phuslā'ā, 'to coax.' بيُسلانا phuslā'ā, 'a coaxer,' from بيُسلانا phuslānā, 'to coax.' كماؤ kamā'ā, 'earning much,' 'laborious,' from كماؤ , retū'ā, 'a filer,' 'a polisher,' from يَتُواً , retū'ā, 'a filer,' 'a polisher,' from يَتُواً , retū'ā, 'to file.'

The original of these affixes is the Sanskrit affix  $\bar{a}ku$ , the k of which is clided in the last, and the u lengthened. They form nouns of agency and attributives: e.g.

پيراک pairāk, 'a swimmer,' from پيراک pairnā, 'to swim.' التاک larāk, التاک الم إلى المال المال

بِكَاوُ bikā'ū, 'for sale,' from بِكُنا biknā, 'to be sold.' كساؤ kasā'ū, 'astringent,' from كسّنا kasnā, 'to bind or tighten.'

These affixes probably spring from the Sanskrit affix āru. They form verbal adjectives (few in number) denoting habitual action or occupation: e.g.

Rem. The affix  $\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$  may perhaps be derived from the Sanskrit  $k\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$  ( $k\bar{a}rin$ ); in which case the above words would be secondary formations from the substantives  $p\bar{u}j\bar{u}$ , 'worship,' and khel, 'play.'

These affixes, which correspond to the Sanskrit affix ana, form attributives, or instrumental nouns: e.g..

This affix is used to form imperfect participles : e.g.

المنسنا hanstā, 'laughing,' from هنسنا hansnā, 'to laugh.'

المنسنا dekhtā, 'seeing,' from ديكهنا dekhtā, 'to see.'

$$1 - \bar{a}$$
 (= S. affix  $ta$  or  $ita$ ).

This is used to form perfect or passive participles: e.g.

لكها likhā, 'written,' from لِكَهِنا likh-nā, 'to write.' ماراً hārā, 'lost,' 'overcome,' from هاراً hār-nā, 'to lose,' etc.

## b) SECONDARY FORMATIONS.

255. The original of this affix is the Sanskrit affix ika, the k of which is elided, and y inserted for euphony. It is used to form nouns of agency and attributives: e.g.

bakheriyā, 'quarrelsome,' 'a brawler,' from ابكهيڙيا bakherā, 'a dispute,' etc.

gāḍar, 'sheep.' عَادّر gāḍar, 'sheep.'

مگهنیک makkhaniyā, ) a butterman,' from مگهنیک makhaniyān, ) a butterman,' from مگهنیک

Rem. The Sanskrit affix is preserved intact in the word کوټاک khaṭṭik, or خوټاک khaṭṭik, 'one who kills and sells game,' (but now generally applied to) 'one who rears and sells poultry.'

This affix, which is one of frequent occurrence, springs from at least three different sources: namely—

a) 
$$s=\bar{s}=8$$
. affix ika,

forming nouns of agency, attributives, and appellatives: e.g

جهولي jholī, 'a wallet' (S. jhaulika).
حلّوا halwā'ī, 'a confectioner,' from حلّوا halwā, 'a sweetmeat.' جاوائيي ķaṣṣāb).

b) 
$$\zeta_{-}$$
  $\bar{\imath} = S$ . affix  $\bar{\imath}ya$  or  $iya$ ,

forming nouns denoting origin, relationship, etc.: e.g.

يها گليوري bhāgalpūrī, 'of, or made at, Bhāgalpūr.'

سمندري samundarī, 'pertaining to the sea' (samundar), 'marine. پهاڙي pahārī, 'produced in mountains' (pahār), 'a mountaineer.'

c) 
$$= S$$
. affix in,

forming attributives and possessives: e.g.

بڙهئي barha'ī, 'a carpenter' (S. varddhakin). بهاري bhārī, 'having weight,' 'weighty,' 'heavy,' from بهاري bhār, 'a weight,' 'a load.'

يبياري baipārī, 'a merchant,' from بيباري baipār, 'traffic.' تيلي telī, 'an oil-man,' from تيلي tel, 'oil' (S. tailika and tailin). سمالي mālī, 'a gardener' (S. mālin).

3) 
$$\frac{\rho}{u}$$
 or  $\frac{1}{2}$   $\frac{\rho}{u}$   $\frac{1}{2}$   $\frac{1}{2}$ 

These affixes correspond to the Sanskrit affix uka. They are added to substantives to form attributives and nouns of agency, as in the case of primary formations: e.g.

This affix forms adjectives from substantives: e.g.

ييار pyārā, 'dear,' 'beloved,' from بيار pyār, 'affection.' بيار بيارا بيار jhūthā, 'false,' 'a liar,' ,, جُونُها sachā or sachchā, 'true,' ,, sach, 'truth.'

5) 
$$\stackrel{\checkmark}{}$$
  $\bar{a}$ ,  $\stackrel{\checkmark}{}$   $y\bar{a}$ , or  $\stackrel{\checkmark}{}$   $\stackrel{\checkmark}{}$   $iy\bar{a}$ ,  $=$  S. affix  $ta$  or  $ita$ .

This affix is used primarily to form perfect participles; but it is also added to substantives to form adjectives or attributives: e.g.

bhūkhā, 'hunger,' from بيُوكها bhūkhā, 'hunger.'

يياسا piyāsā, 'thirsty,' from پياس piyās. 'thirst.' مُكِيا dukhiyā, 'wretched,' 'afflicted,' from دُكُهِ dukhiyā, 'wretched,' 'pain.'

6) 
$$\int l\bar{u}$$
,  $\int l=S$ . affix  $lu$ :

Forms adjectives or attributives from substantives: e.g.

jhagṛālū, 'quarrelsome,' 'a brawler,' from جگڙالو jhagṛā, 'quarrel.'

ניטל dayāl, 'compassionate,' from ניט dayā, 'pity,' mercy.'

This affix, which corresponds to the Sanskrit affix  $\bar{a}la$ , is used to form possessives: e.g.

له الها بها لها bhathiyāl, 'with, or having, the stream' (بها بها bhāthā).

jawālā, 'grain mixed with barley as food for cattle,' lit. 'containing barley' (جو jau).

النَّهِيَّال lathiyāl, 'having a stick,' 'one armed with a stick ' (lathi).

In a few words the original possessive signification is lost: e.g. گَوْتْ يَالُ ghariyāl, 'a gong,' lit. 'containing the hour' (gharī).

8) 
$$\sqrt[3]{la} = S$$
. affix  $ra$ .

This affix forms adjectives from substantives: e.g.

اگا aglā, 'preceding,' 'former,' from اگا āgā, 'the front,' etc. الله pichhlā, 'hindermost,' 'latter,' from پیچپ pīchhā, 'hindermost,' etc.

كَنْدُهُ dhundhlā, 'hazy,' 'misty,' from دهُنْده dhundh, 'haze,' etc. ريتَلا retlā, 'sandy,' from ريتَلا ret, 'sand.'

9) يل عالم تاته عنه والله عنه الله عنه الله عنه الله عنه الله عنه الله عنه الله الله الله عنه الله عن

These affixes, which are of very common occurrence, correspond to

the Sanskrit affixes  $\bar{\imath}r\bar{a}$ ,  $\bar{\imath}la$ , ura (ula), or  $\bar{u}ra$ .\(^1\) They form attributives and possessives, often signifying the possession of a quality in an intensive degree: e.g.

رسيلا منه ras, 'juice.' رسيلا ras, 'juice.' رسيلا sharmīlā, 'bashful,' from شرّه sharm, 'shame.' شرّهيلا sharm, 'shame.' شرّهيلا nokīlā, 'pointed,' from نوكيلا dantīlā, ) 'having large tusks,' 'tusked,' from تتيل dāntel, 'a tooth' (S. dantura).

ا كميرل kamerā, 'a worker,' 'industrious,' from كميرل bojhel, 'loaded,' from بوجهيل bojhel, 'loaded,' from بوجهيل dūdhail, 'giving milk,' 'mileh,' from كردهه dudhail, 'giving milk,' 'mileh,' from كردهه dūdh, 'milk.'

The original form of this affix is probably *ula* (*ura*). It is used to form attributives denoting *habit* or *disposition*, and is found in a few words only; *e.g.* 

thathol, 'a jester,' 'a wag,' from الْهِقَّةِ thatthā, 'fun.' أَهِقَّةُ hansor, 'facetious,' 'merry,' 'a wag,' from هنسوڙ hansā, 'laughter.'

The origin of this affix is the Sanskrit adjective sāra, which occurs at the end of compounds. It signifies 'full of,' pervaded with,' and is employed in both Hindī and Persian to form possessives or attributives: e.g.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The terminations  $er\bar{a}$ ,  $el\bar{a}$ , etc., are not always affixes; they often result from the elision of one or more letters in an original Sanskrit word, and lengthening of a short vowel on which the accent falls: e.g.  $sanper\bar{a}$  (i.e.  $sanp-hir\bar{a}$ ), 'a snake-catcher,' from the Sanskrit  $sarpa-h\bar{a}ra$ . The word banela or  $banail\bar{a}$ , 'wild,' is probably derived in a similar way; it may, however, be formed by adding the affix  $el\bar{a}$  to the noun ban, 'a forest.' These remarks apply to other terminations also: for example,  $\bar{a}l$  in the word  $susr\bar{a}l$ , and  $\bar{a}l\bar{a}$  or  $va\bar{a}l\bar{a}$  in the word  $gva\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ , are not affixes, but the result of elision of one or more letters:  $susr\bar{a}l = Sanskrit svasru + \bar{a}laya$ , 'father-in-law's house;'  $gva\bar{a}l\bar{a}$  (i.e.  $gv^*\bar{a}l\bar{a}) = S$ .  $go-p\bar{a}la$ , 'a cowherd,' and not  $gau-va\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ , as Mr. Etherington (Hindī Grammar, p. 128) makes it out to be.

milan-sār, 'sociable,' 'affable,' from وبلن milan-sār, 'mixing with.' شرّه sharm-sār, 'bashful,' from شرّه sharm, 'shame.'

The signification of this affix is 'full of.' It occurs in a few adjectives, some of which are used as substantives: eg.

لتا لم batāshā, ) 'a kind of sweetmeat,' 'a bubble,' lit. 'filled with air' batāsā, ) (bāt).

This affix is derived from the Sanskrit adjective  $k\bar{a}ra$ , signifying 'making,' 'doing,' by elision of k, and is added to substantives to form nouns of agency, or nouns denoting trade or occupation: e.g.

سونار sonār, 'a goldsmith,' from سونا sonā, 'gold.' لوهار lohār, 'a blacksmith,' from لوهار lohār, 'iron.' كُمّها, 'kumhār, 'a potter,' from كُمّها, 'kumbh, 'an earthen pot.'

This affix also, like the preceding, is derived from the Sanskrit kāra. It is added to inflected infinitives and to nouns to form nouns of agency, and, affixed to verbal nouns, forms future active participles (§ 160, 2): e.g.

مرنے هارا marne-hārā, ) 'one who is dying,' 'one about to die,' from مرن هار maran-hār, ) مرن هار

الكتِّر هارا lakar-hārā, 'a wood-cutter,' 'a wood-man,' from لكتِّر هارا a contraction of لكرِّي lakr̄i, 'wood.'

The original of this affix is the Sanskrit affix vala. It is most commonly employed in Hindī and Urdū to form nouns denoting agency, possession, origin, and numerous other relations. Added to infinitives, it often forms future active participles: e.g.

والا جُلْنَ والا والله chalne-wālā, 'a goer,' 'one about to go,' from چُلْنَ والا يَّهُ وَمَّارَى والا وَقَرَّ وَاللهُ وَقَرَّ وَاللهُ وَقَرَّ وَاللهُ وَقَرَّ وَاللهُ وَقَرَّ وَاللهُ وَقَرَ وَاللهُ وَقَرَّ وَاللهُ وَقَرَّ وَاللهُ وَقَرَّ وَاللهُ وَقَرَ وَاللهُ وَقَرَّ وَاللهُ وَقَرَى وَاللهُ وَقَرَى وَاللهُ وَقَرَى وَاللهُ وَقَرَالِهُ وَقَرَّ وَقَرَى وَاللهُ وَقَرَالِهُ وَقَرَالِهُ وَقَرَّ وَقَرَالِهُ وَقَرَالِهُ وَقَرَّ وَقَرَالِهُ وَاللهُ وَاللّٰهُ وَقَرَالِهُ وَقَرَالِهُ وَاللّٰهُ وَاللّٰهُ وَقَرَالِهُ وَقَرَالِهُ وَاللّٰهُ وَقَرَاللهُ وَقَرَالِهُ وَقَرَالِهُ وَقَرَاللهُ وَقَرَالِهُ وَقَرَالِهُ وَقَرَالِهُ وَقَرَالِهُ وَقَرَالِهُ وَاللّٰهُ وَاللّٰهُ وَاللّٰ وَقَرْقُوا وَاللّٰهُ وَاللّٰهُ وَقَرْقُوا وَاللّٰهُ وَاللّٰ وَاللّٰهُ وَاللّٰ وَاللّٰهُ وَ

Rem. Hindī nouns ending in ā must be inflected before the affix is added: e.g. کیّت و الا kapre-wālā, 'a cloth merchant.'

This is not so much an affix as the latter part of a compound, signifying, 'place,' 'inclosure,' 'house,' 'garden,' etc. It is derived from the Sanskrit wāṭī. Examples are:

پنواڙِي pan-wāṛī, 'a betel-garden,' from پان pān, 'betel-leaf.' پنواڙي phūl, 'a flower.' بهنواڙي phūl, 'a flower.' مينوار satī-wāṛ, 'the place where a satī is burnt.' هنڙوار hāṛ) are laid.'

#### III. DIMINUTIVES.

- 256. Diminutives are of frequent occurrence in Hindī and Urdū; in not a few cases, however, though the form is preserved, the diminutive signification is lost. In some instances, moreover, the original from which the diminutive is derived has become obsolete.
- 257. The idea of diminutiveness is frequently expressed by substituting the feminine termination for the masculine: e.g.

أَيْلِي uplī, 'small cakes of dried cow-dung,' from uplā. وَكُرِي tokrī, 'a small basket,' from tokrā. وَحَرِي rassā, 'a rope.'

Various affixes also are employed to form diminutives from nouns, as:

This corresponds to the Sanskrit diminutive affix ka, the k of which is elided, and the final vowel lengthened. The connecting vowel of this affix is always i, which takes the place of a final vowel in the base, and a long vowel in the base is shortened before the affix is added: e.g.

يُونِي betī, 'daughter.' from بِهُونِي betī, 'daughter.' بهُونِي phuriyā, 'a small boil,' 'a pimple,' from بهُونِي phorā, 'a boil.' بهُونِي chiriyā, 'a bird,' from چَرِي chirī, 'a bird.' جَرِي khaṭiyā, 'a small bedstead,' from کَهُاتُ khaṭiyā, 'a bedstead.' (Sanskrit khaṭṭikā).

Rem. In the towns, and especially by Mohammadans, the connecting vowel i is dropped, and such words are pronounced phuryā, chiryā, etc.

This affix, like the last, is derived from the Sanskrit affix ka, the difference consisting in the connecting vowel, which in this case is u (changeable to w); and hence the difference of gender in words formed by means of the two affixes, those with  $iy\bar{a}$  being feminine, and those with  $\bar{u}'\bar{a}$  masculine. A long vowel in the base is shortened before the affix is added: e.g.

بِتُوا baṭū'ā or baṭwā, 'a small bag' (original not in use).
ا بِتُوا biṭū'ā or biṭwā, 'son,' 'dear son,' from بِتُوا betā, 'son.' mardū'ā, 'a manikin,' 'a contemptible man' (mard).

The Sanskrit affix is preserved unchanged in a few words: e.g. فراكت dholak, 'a small drum' (dhol).

These affixes are all derived from the Sanskrit diminutive affix ra, r and l being interchangeable in Hindī. In the first two no connecting

vowel is used; but in the last two the connecting vowels are i and u respectively, which are lengthened to e and o on account of the accent. A long vowel in the base is generally shortened before the affixes are added Examples are:

الْهِكُرِةُ thikrā, ) 'a fragment of an earthen vessel' (original, thīk, لَهُكُرُا thīkrā, ) obsolete).

إِيْ tukṛā, 'a small piece,' 'a bit,' from tūk, 'a piece.'

palangṛī, 'a small bedstead,' from palang, 'a bedstead.'

نَكُرِّي taṅgrī, } 'a leg,' from اَنْكُرِّي taṅgrī, } 'a leg,' from اَنْكُرِ taṅgrī, 'leg.'

لَّهُ khujlī (for khajulī), 'iteh,' from کُجُولِي khūj, 'iteh.'

ghanṭālī, 'a small bell,' from ghanṭā, 'a bell.'

murelā, 'a pea-chick,' 'a pea-fowl,' from مريلا mor, 'a peacock.'

لَّهُ baghelā, 'a tiger's cub,' 'a young tiger,' from بُاگَةِ būgh, 'a tiger.'

لَّهُ لَوْكُ khaṭolā, 'a small, or rickety, bedstead' (khāṭ).

garolā (for garholā), 'a small, or dilapidated, fort,' 'a place with such a fort,' from garh, 'a fort.'

الله إلى " gharolā, 'a small earthen pot' (gharā).

Rem. Some grammarians mention  $et\bar{a}$ , and  $ot\bar{a}$ , as diminutive affixes, but these are simply contractions of the words  $bet\bar{a}$ , 'son,' and  $pot\bar{a}$  (from  $p\bar{u}t$ ) 'son,' 'young:' e.g.  $brahman-et\bar{a}=brahman-bet\bar{a}$ , 'a brahman's son,' 'a young brahman;'  $hiran-ot\bar{a}=hiran-pot\bar{a}$ , 'a young deer,' 'a fawn.'

#### IV. COMPOUNDS.

- a) Nouns with a Particle Prefixed.
- 1) Negative Prefixes : أ a, ن أ an, ن nā, نير nir, ن ni.

258. The prefix a is used with adjectives, an chiefly with participles and gerunds,  $n\bar{a}$  with adjectives or abstract nouns derived from adjectives. Examples are:

Rem. These particles are all of Sanskrit origin, and have the same signification as in Sanskrit, but a slight difference is observable in the use of the particle an, it being prefixed in Hindī to nouns beginning with either a vowel or a consonant. For other particles, such as dur or dush, etc., which rarely occur in Urdū, and in Hindī only in words borrowed directly from the Sanskrit, we must refer the student to the Dictionary.

- 2) Qualificative Particles: سُ هِي, 'well,' لَٰذُ لِمِي 'well,' نُدُ لِمِي 'badly:' e.g. گُذُولِ لللهِ عُلَامِي مُنْدُولِ لللهِ اللهِ مُنْدُولِ لللهِ اللهِ اللهِ اللهُ اللهُ
  - 3) Possessive Particle:  $\omega$  sa, 'with,' having.' (= S. saha).

Examples of this affix are not numerous in Urdū; the following are a few:

259. Compound nouns, though not nearly so numerous as in Sanskrit and Persian, are by no means few in number; but in no instance is a compound formed of more than two nouns. They may be classed under five

heads: Collective (corresponding to the Sanskrit Dvandva), Dependent Determinative (the Sanskrit Tatpurusha), Appositional Determinative (the Sanskrit Karmadhāraya), Numeral Determinative (the Dvigu of the Sanskrit), Attributive, or Possessive (corresponding to the Bahuvrihi of the Sanskrit).

## 1) Collective Compounds.

These consist of two words that would naturally be connected by a conjunction: e.g.

لَّهُ bhalā ohangā, 'hale and hearty.'

رن رات din-rāt, 'day and night.'

نَّمْتِي بِرَّهْتِي kamtī-baṛhtī, 'deficiency and excess,' 'more or less.'

کہا کہ kahā-kahī, 'altercation.'

mā-bāp, 'father and mother,' 'parents.'

In many instances the conjunction is expressed: e.g.

مُوا مَّهُ-o-hawā, 'climate.'

رن ورن , rāt-o-din, 'night and day.'

rāt-o-rāt, 'in the middle of the night,' 'all night long.'

And in some cases the place of the copulative conjunction is supplied by the Persian conjunctive particle  $\tilde{a}$ : e.g.

Under this head may also be classed the compounds in which one of the words is a meaningless one, used merely to rhyme or jingle with the other: as

ادّلا بدلا adlā-badlā, 'exchange,' 'alteration.'
اروس پڙوس aros-paros, 'neighbourhood.'
الت پُلت للت پُلت bhīr-bhār, 'crowd,' 'bustle.'

# 2) DEPENDENT DETERMINATIVE COMPOUNDS.

This class comprises compounds in which the last word governs the first, which is therefore always in the Formative. Such compounds are of frequent occurrence: e.g.

أنتا كمر anțā-ghar, 'a billiard room.'

ankh-michault, 'blindman's buff,' lit. 'covering the eyes.'

'angarkhā (i.e. ang-rakhā), 'a coat,' lit. 'body-protector.'

باگذور bāg-dor, 'a long rope by which horses are led,' lit. 'bridle-rope.'

يَّرْ بُوْرَ عُلَّا لَهُ bhar-bhūnjā, 'a parcher of grain,' lit. 'one who parches (grain) in an oven' (bhat).

تل حِتّا til-chattā, 'a cockroach,' lit. 'oil (tel)-licker.'

ديس نكالا des-nikālā, 'banishment.'

pan-chakkī, 'a water-mill.'

ريل گاڙي rel-gāṛī, 'a railway carriage.'

بهو جَيُور bhoj-pūr, 'name of a town,' lit. 'the city of Bhoj.'

lakh-patī, 'rich,' 'a millionnaire,' lit. 'owner of a lae.'

## 3) Appositional Determinative Compounds.

In these compounds the first word stands as the predicate of the second: e.g.

بهامنسائي bhal-mansā'ī, 'humanity,' 'benignity.'

chor-bālū, 'a quicksand.'

تْنَاوُ rat-ālū, 'a yam,' lit. 'a red (or purple) root.'

, mājh-dhār, 'midstream.'

mahājan, 'a banker,' lit. 'a great man.'

mahā-rāj, 'majesty,' 'excellency,' lit. 'great king.'

# 4) Numeral Determinative Compounds.

In these the first word is a numeral, which stands as a predicate of the following noun: eg.

ر مار do-pahar, 'midday,' 'noon.'

الله du-paṭṭā, 'a kind of veil,' lit. 'two breadths.'

الله pach-maḥall, 'five stories.'

الله chār-ānkhen, 'the eyes of two people meeting,' lit. 'four eyes.'

الله chau-māsā, 'the rainy stason,' lit. 'four months.'

الله chaurāhā, 'a cross road,' 'a place where four roads meet.'

## 5) Attributive or Possessive Compounds.

These always stand as predicate to a subject. The various determinative compounds may be used as possessives by changing them into adjectives. Examples are:

ادهمُوا ادهمُوا bāra-singā, 'a stag,' 'twelve-tined.' باره سِنگا bāra-singā, 'a stag,' 'twelve-tined.' بَوْ سِنگا pach-maḥallā, 'five-storied.' تو پي پيتا topī-phaṭā, 'having a torn cap.' دو نالِي do-nālī, 'double-barrelled.'

Possessives may also be formed from such compounds as have a particle for the first member: e.g.

سَمُونَا sa-launā, 'salted,' 'seasoned,' 'beautiful,' 'piquant.' مُدُّهَنَّاً! ku-dhangā, 'unmannerly, 'rude.'

# PART III.-SYNTAX

## CHAPTER VI.

#### I. OF THE PARTS OF A SENTENCE.

- 260. Every sentence ( a sum or total of words) consists necessarily of two principal parts, the subject, or that of which something is asserted, and the predicate, or that which is asserted of the subject.
- 261. The subject of a sentence is either a noun (substantive, or adjective used as a substantive, pronoun, or infinitive), or a pronoun implied in the verb; the predicate is either a verb alone, or a verb with an adjective or substantive annexed as a predicative noun, by which the subject is defined and described: e.g.

PREDICATE. ,kāṭtā hai كاتتا هَي jā'ūngā, جازنگا

kuttā, 'the dog bites.' main, 'I will go.' مريو mariyo, ..... 'die!' or 'may you die.' ئيمار مَي bīmār, 'the sick man is present.' ..... 'die!' or 'may you die.' مُنسنا أو burā hai, مُنسنا hansnā, 'laughing is bad.' فنسنا أو bīmār thā, وُهُ wǒh, 'he was sick.'

Rem. Urdū grammarians call the predicate of a sentence the that which leans upon (the subject), or the attribute; and the subject, the that upon which (the predicate) leans, or that to which something is attributed.

262. The verbs which are generally used in connection with a predicative noun subjoined, are هُوں, فرن, etc., and to be,' or 'become,' and others فو جانا or مونا, etc., تها which add some modifying idea (as duration, continuity, permanence, etc.) to the simple one of existence: e.g. نگلنا 'to appear,' 'scem' نظرآنا 'to appear,' 'scem' (to sit down,' بَيْتُهِنا 'to continue or remain;' رهنا 'to stay,' 'stand,' 'last,' and such like; as also the passives of verbs which signify to name, make, call, hold for anything, etc. (§§ 349, 351), to which the words which denote what a thing is named, what it is made, and for what it is held, are subjoined without any further addition: e.g.

'even he became an idolater.' وُهُ بَهِي برهُّمن هو گيا 'you did not become any one's friend.' تُو دُوسَّت كِسِي كا نهُوا تها eventually that same thought of آخِروُهِي سُوچُنا ميرا صحِيم نِكُلا mine proved correct.'

'.living appears difficult' زِنْدگِی دُشُوار نظُر آتِی هَی he was (remained) present till twelve وُهُ دو پہر بجے تک حاضِر رها

'my surmise proved correct.' ميرا منصُوب ليهيك بَيْتِها

whereby our business proves to be جس سے همارا کام عداوت کڑنا bearing enmity.' لَّهُ بِهُ رَّتَا هَٰي bearing enmity.' دُوْتِي كِي كَنِّي دُوْتِي كِي كَنِّي

'.he was named Kallū' نامَ أَسْكاً كُلُّو رَكْهَا كُلُيَّا

it was not considered (held to be) وُه ایک آیْسِی زبان نہیں سمجھی such a language.'

263. Instead of being joined to a predicative noun in the nominative, the verbs تها, هَي, etc., may be combined with some other expression which serves to describe or define them; as with a genitive, وَهُ بِرِّي قِيمِت كَا هُي 'it is of great price;' كلام چار طرح كا هُي 'discourse is of four kinds;' or with a locative case, كتاب گهر پر هَي 'the book is at home;' or with a postposition and the noun it governs, وَيَد كَ بِاس ايك چيتا هَي 'there is a leopard in Zaid's possession;' or with an adverb of place, to denote the place or relation in which a thing is, وَهُ يَهِال هُي 'he is here,' مُنْ يَهِال هُي 'the city was near;' or with an adverbial phrase which denotes way or manner, state or condition, جو بانهي كے اندر سے سِر نِكالے تيے 'which were with their heads out of (their) holes.' The following are used impersonally: خَير هَي 'it is well,' اَيْسا دُوا 'it happened thus.'

above cited, may also be used as self-subsistent (or attributive) verbs: as—-

on others has fallen (exists) the ' أوّرون پسر هَي وُد ظُلُم جو مُجه پر tyranny which did not fall on me.' نهُوا تها ' as long as the power of endurance ' شكيب كي جب تلك تهِي existed.'

'madness has happened to Nasih.'

Reno. A sentence of which the predicate is a self-subsistent verb is called by Urdū grammarians a verbal sentence (جُمَلُ فِعْلِيّه), the subject of which they term فَعْل , the agent, and the predicate, فَعْل the action or verb; whereas a sentence whose predicate consists of a

<sup>1</sup> Mr. Dowson (Urāū Grammar, page 113) finds fault with this sentence because it is not constructed thus: jin-ne bānbhī-ke andar-se sir nikāle the. The sentence is, however, quite correct. The mistake is Mr. Dowson's in supposing that the verb the is here used as an auxiliary. The phrase bānbhī-ke andar-se sir-nikāle (hū'e) is the adverbial complement of the verb the, and shows the state or condition (hāl) of the subject. Numerous examples of the same construction are to be found in the Khirad Afroz, as also in more modern works.

non-attributive verb (وَعَلَ نَاقِص an incomplete or defective verb), is called a nominal sentence (جُمَلُ السَّمِيّة), and its subject is termed (مُمَلُ السَّمِيّة), and its subject is termed مُمَلِّة المُمَلِّة بَعْلِيّة عَلِيّة عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهُ عَلِيّة عَلَيْهُ عَلِيهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلِيهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلِيهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهُ

265. The predicate may be more accurately defined by adverbs and by substantives (or words used substantively) in certain cases (and by postpositions with their nouns) which denote the *object* of the action asserted, and the circumstances attending it: as—

(he) used to apply his mind intently) رعِیَّت کِی داد رسِی میں خُوب to dispensing justice to his subjects.'

266. A substantive may be connected in a certain relation with another substantive, in order to define it more accurately: e.g. خاک کا قالب 'an earth-mould.' Substantives may also be defined or characterized more closely by adding to them other substantives descriptive of the same person or thing: as—

the king of the birds, Shāh-murg.' طائِروں کا بادَشاہ شاہ مُرْغ 'the sage, Bedpā'e, the Brāhman.'

The subjoining of these is called *apposition*, and that which is subjoined, the *appositive* ( the follower').

Every substantive may also be defined by having an adjective (participle, or genitive) added to it: an adjective which is immediately connected with the substantive is called attributive (جَلْتِي آگَتُ 'a good man,' جَلْتِي آگَتُ 'my book'), to distinguish it from

that which is used as a predicative noun with a non-attributive verb: as کتاب احّیای هی 'the book is good.'

267. If a determined noun (المرابع معرف المرابع المرابع

268. The predicate verb هي (or the verb and predicative noun) is sometimes omitted, especially in poetry, and in brief proverbial sentences: e.g.

no one either has any concern with ' نہ کیسی کو کیسی کے نفّے سے غرض د. the benefiting, or anything to do with the injuring, of another.'

(همارِي بلاکے ساتھ هَي or همارِي بلا سے علاقہ هَي =) همارِي بلا سے 'it rests with (concerns) my evil destiny.'

269. The predicate is also omitted in sentences which contain an imprecation; as—

سر پر بر 'may sorrow befal thee' (lit. 'dust on thy head').

In such sentences the predicate is generally the Aorist of the verb نيْن 'to befal,' 'to alight on.'

II. OF THE ORDER OF THE WORDS IN A SIMPLE SENTENCE.

270. The most simple arrangement of the words is this, that the subject, with its adjuncts, stands first, and the predicate follows in such a way that the verb usually stands last, in order to combine the whole proposition ( ), while the object and the object of relation, or the predicative noun, with the other definitions of the verb (the ablative or locative case, postpositions with their nouns, adverbs), are placed in the middle, the object generally preceding: e.g.

'Zaid's brother is very learned.' أيد كا بهائي برّا عالِم هَي 'Taid's brother is very learned.' وه گهرك اندر بے خبر سوتا تها 'each single sentence involves a 'lousand meanings.' 'I) so convinced my mind of the evil خيانت آور چوري كيي بُرائِي دِل '(I) so convinced my mind of the evil نجيانت آور چوري كيي بُرائِي دِل 'the fear of their brethren prevents 'افر تَحْقيق سے مانِع هَي them from seeking and ascertaining the truth.'

But if the object be so closely connected with the verb as to form with it a so-called nominal compound, or if the other words used to define the predicate are considered of greater importance, or are first thought of, the object is placed nearest the verb: as—

he used to apply his mind intently 'ولا رعِيّت کِي داد رسِي ميں 'to dispensing justice to his subjects.' مارا عِلْم سب کاموں سے همکو 'our knowledge hinders us from (pro-

271. If the verb has two objective complements expressed, one direct and the other indirect (§ 348), the latter generally precedes the former; but if the latter be the antecedent of a following relative, or in any way closely connected with what follows, or any stress be laid on the direct object, this is placed first: as—

that thing which is treated of in a مُوَفَّوع عِلْم كَا أَسِي كَهُتِ هَيں science is termed (lit. they term) مؤلم لائل أس عِلْم the subject-matter of that science.'

'I showed him that bag.'

272. The simple arrangement of the words may however be so far departed from that the object may lead off the sentence, and this not only for the sake of emphasis, as is generally supposed, but even where no emphasis is desired: as كُو كُو مُوهِن مَارْتا هُي 'Mohan is beating Kallū.' This is especially the case if the predicative noun be in the locative, or if a noun in the dative or other case be used with one of the verbs شهر , في , etc., to denote possession (§ 340): as—

is there any one in the house?' گھر میں کوئی آدمی هی هی. 'madness has happened to (possessed) Nāṣiḥ.' ناصح کو سَوْدا هُوًا 'there is a leopard in Zaid's possession.' زید کے پاس ایک چیتا هی

The following are examples of a predicative noun, or an object being placed first for the sake of emphasis:

'Zaid is a fool.' احمق هَي زَيد 'Zaid is a fool.'
' where have you taken those books to?' أَن كِتابوں كو تُو كہاں ليے گيا هَي
' whatever you say, that same (I) will do.'

The relative pronoun however, as objective complement, usually precedes the subject.

Rem. The object may even take the last place in a sentence if that be the most strikingly emphatic, or if it be desired to contrast it (or make it rhyme) with another object in a co-ordinate sentence: e.g. مجاهِل طلب كُرْتا هَي مال كو أور عاقِل كمال كو 'A fool seeks wealth, and a wise man perfection.' This construction, however, is generally regarded as irregular and feeble, and should not be imitated.

273. The arrangement of the words in an interrogative sentence is not generally different from that in an affirmative sentence: as گر مین گرن هي 'who is in the house?' نسب کيا بات هي 'who is my book?' ميري کتاب کيان هي 'what matter is this?' The interrogative particle کيا is often placed at the beginning of an interrogative sentence, as کيا توپ دگ گئي 'what! has the gun fired?' or simply, 'has the gun fired?' But it is more commonly omitted (unless used simply to express surprise, reproof, etc.), and then, in the absence of an interrogative, the context alone must decide whether the sentence is interrogative or not. In conversation, the tone of the voice is always a certain indication.

Rem. The poetical arrangement of words is distinguished from that followed in prose by a much greater freedom, and also by the circumstance that it is regulated not only by the sense and emphasis, but often by the necessity of the verse. The freedom is shown in the circumstance, that words which are connected together in meaning, and in prose would stand together, are often separated, and words which in prose have a definite place assigned to them, are transposed to another part of the sentence. The following are examples:

when unbelief (what constitutes unbelief) has

been proved (impressed on the mind,
realized), it is a sign of true belief (Saudā).

'as long as the power of endurance existed,
as long as the force of restraint lasted

(Mūmin Khān).'

274. A Substantive or Adjective in Apposition (the follower, or appositive) follows the noun to which it refers (the that which is followed), and is put in the same number and case, the two nouns being treated as a compound phrase, and the governing postposition (if the nouns be in an oblique case) placed after the last alone: as—

'the boys are all come.' لَزِّکَ سَبِ آئِے هَٰ سَ اَلْہُ هَٰ اَلْمُ لَٰ اَلْهُ اَلْهُ اِلْهُ اِلْهُ اِلْهُ اَلْهُ اَلْهُ اِلْهُ اِلْهُ اِلْهُ اَلْهُ اَلْهُ اَلْهُ اِلْهُ اِلْهُ اِلْهُ اَلْهُ اللَّهُ اللَّا اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ ال

'having gone to the bird-king, Shāh- طائِروں کے باڈشاہ شاہ مُرْغ کے murg.'

275. Similarly if two or more nouns are connected by asyndeton, or by an expressed conjunction, they are regarded as in apposition, and the postposition governing them in an oblique case is placed after the last alone: as—

between the evil and the good of it.' أُسْكِي بُرائِي بِهِلائِي مِيں 'the evil of perfidy and dishonesty.' خِيانت آور چورِي كِي بُرائِي 'to(both)highandlow of(your) subjects.'

276. If the nouns so connected be in an oblique case of the plural, the last alone is commonly (but not invariably) put in the Formative plural, the others taking the form of the Formative singular: as—

by the small and the great rejoicings چپوٹے بڑوں نے خُوشِیاں کِیں were made.'

'in mountain caves and desolate places.' پہاڑوں کے غار اُور وَيرانوں ميں

Rem. Urdū grammarians, it may be observed, recognize six kinds of appositives (توابع): 1) تاکِید the strengthening or corroboration, which is of two kinds; a) تاکید معنوي the corroboration in meaning, and b) تاكِيدِ لفَظِي the verbal corroboration, which consists in the emphatic repetition of the word itself, whether that word be a noun, verb, or particle. Examples of the first are: زَيد خُود آيا, or إِذَا يد خُود آيا 'Zaid himself came,' لَزِّكَ سَبِ آئِے هَيں 'the boys are all come,' I will (immediately) send کو بجنس آپ کے پاس بھیجتا ھُوں the book itself to you.' The appositive in this case may be any word that strengthens the idea of totality or of self already contained in the or noun that is followed. Examples of the second kind are 'whatever words; جو جو باتين '¿Zaid is come, Zaid 'زيد آيا زيد each 'ایک ایک فِقْره 'what various misfortunes' کیا کیا مُصِیبتیں single sentence; مارا مارا زَيد نے 'Zaid beat (him), beat (him); the description, نعت (Yes! Yes! I did (it).'—2) هاں هاں میں نے کیا or the qualification. This may refer to the matbū' either directly, in which case it is a simple adjective, or indirectly, in which case it is an adjective sentence (a qualificative or relative clause), as کتاب خسکا the book, the leaf of which is torn.'—3) بدل the substitution, or permutative, which is of four kinds; a) بدل گُل the substitution of the whole (for the whole); as كُنُّو تيرا بهائِي ميري هال آيا تها عالية على الله على ال 'Kallū, your brother, came to my place;' b) بدل بغض the substitution of this ' یہہ کِتابِ مَسِی نَے اُسْکا ورق پہاڑ ڈالا the part (for the whole), as

book—I tore a leaf of it; 'e) بدل اشتمال بدل اشتمال بدل اشتمال (this book, its wrapper is good; 'a) بدل خزدان اچها هي the permutative of error, as گهر کو مذرسه کو چلنا چاهيئي the permutative of error, as بدل غلط (we ought to go home, (I mean to say), to school.' The last three kinds of permutatives are common in colloquial speech, and the second and third in poetry also.—4) عظف بيان the explanatory apposition, which consists in the connection of a substantive with another which it more closely defines, as عرف بها الدين بهادر شاه Sirāju'ddīn (alias, or better known as) Bahādur Shāh.'—5) غلوا ور موهن apposition by means of a conjunction, as کلوا ور موهن 'Kallū and Mohan.'—6) تابع مُهْمَالُ دُنْکا 'grain.'

277. A Genitive may either precede or follow the substantive by which it is governed: as—

the principal and the profit thereof.' اصَّل و نفَّع أَسَّكَا ناخبار كِي كَيفِيَّت 'the character of the newspaper.'

But if emphasis or contrast is desired, the genitive is usually placed before the governing noun; as وُه ميرِي كِتاب 'that is my book.'

278. When the governing noun is preceded by an attributive, the genitive may either follow the governing noun or precede the attributive: as—

its apparent wording or tenour.' ظاهِرِي عِبارت أَسْكِي 'its apparent wording or tenour.'

279. The genitive may even be separated from its governing noun by other words, as adverbs, interrogative pronouns, etc., so long as they do not make the construction ambiguous or obscure: as—

'how can I believe you 'مَیْں تیرا کیُونْکر اِغْتِبار کرُوں 'what is your name?'

'what is your name?' تیرا کیا نام هَي 'what is your name?' تیری اُسّمیں کیا مرضي هَي 'what is your pleasure respecting it?' (I) would have made of his skull a درنّدوں کے پانِی پینے کا پِیَاله to drink water out of.'

280. Adjectives.—The usual position for an attributive adjective is immediately before its substantive; as فرهين 'an intelligent lad;' اچّا آدْمي 'a good man.' But if the adjective in any way particularizes the substantive, it usually follows, especially if other descriptive phrases accompany it: as—

bring good rice.' چاٽول اچھا لانا 'bring good rice.' منت آويز پکي لِکُهُوالو 'have a sound acknowledgment (of the transfer) written.'

there is a very large house in that ' اُس گُوچے سیں ایک حویلي المام ال

المباري سِي هَي المباري المبا

arranged, came out.'

281. Similarly the demonstrative pronoun, which usually precedes the substantive, may, for the sake of emphasis, follow it: as جو 'He is a good physician, who,' etc. (lit. 'that physician is good,' etc.)

282. Great emphasis may be given to an adjective by

separating it from its substantive, and placing it at the end of the sentence, so as to let it produce a more independent impression: as—

'there was a very deep mountain gorge.' ایک پہاڑکا درہ تھا۔ نہایت عمیق

283. Adverbs.—An adverb which belongs to an adjective or another adverb almost invariably stands before it: as ایک نبایت عمین دره 'a very deep gorge.' So also an adverb which belongs to a verb usually stands immediately before it: as ایک کردا کرتی کبیلا گردا کرتی کبیلا گردا کرتی کبیلا گردا کرتی But it may be placed, for the sake of emphasis, at the beginning of the sentence, or inserted without emphasis between the more prominent words. If however a whole clause is qualified, it is placed at the beginning: e.g.

and inasmuch as his path had never' اور حُونَّكِ پہلے كَمِبِي أَسْكَا گُذَر ''lain that way before.'

ناگهاں ایک جزیرہ سرسبز اور 'suddenly a verdant and very beautiful 'island came in sight.'

284. The negative particle, like other adverbs, usually precedes the verb; but if the tense be a compound one, it may also stand between the auxiliary and the participle: as—

I was not aware of this.' میں بید نہ جائتا تھا 'I was not aware of this.' میں بید نہ جائتا تھا 'no one used to understand the Government regulations,' or lit. 'any one did not understand,' etc.

The negative is never used adjectively, but is always an adverb qualifying the verb in a sentence.

285. Conjunctions, as connecting and showing the relation between sentences, naturally precede the members they serve to introduce: as—

but still the capacity of manifesting ' مگر اُس ميں ظُهُور كِي قابِلِيّت (itself) existed in it.'

(but this also is the opinion of certain ' ليكن بعض عُقلا كِي يِهِ بهِي رائي sages.'

### III. CONCORD OF THE SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

286. The verb of the predicate agrees with the subject in number, person, and gender, unless it be of the form in which personal terminations are found, viz.: the Imperative, the Aorist, and the fragmentary verb هَيْ , فُور , etc.; these admit of no change of form to indicate gender: e.g. 'these admit of will go;' سَيْلُ اللّٰهِ عَلَيْكُمْ 'we (masc.) will read;' هُمْ يَرْهُمُنَكُمْ 'we (fem.) will read;' هُمْ يَرْهُمُنَكُمْ 'it is I' (masc. or fem.); هُمْ هُمِينَ (masc. or fem.).

Rem. a. Not only are the personal pronouns as subjects often omitted, but a substantive as subject is also occasionally understood: e.g. فيها يت فراغت سے گذرنے لگي 'life passed in great comfort,' where زندگي or some similar word is understood.

Rem. b. When a superior addresses an inferior, he frequently speaks of himself in the first person plural: e.g. هم آئينگ 'it is I;' هم دُين 'I will come.' Similarly another is commonly addressed in the second person plural, as in English; e.g. تُم كُون هو "who are you?"

287. The predicative participle or adjective (if this admit of a feminine being formed from it) is regulated by the subject in gender, number and case; and similarly

237

every adjective (or genitive), whenever possible, agrees with the substantive with which it is connected: as---

(the prince stood (became stationary) شاهزاده روش يركهڙا هُوا on the walk.'

"all the bees yield him obedience." سب متجيال أسْكِي إطاعت

کڑتی کیں (these misfortunes were written in (my) یے مصیبتیں قِسمت میں لکھی destiny.'

that dress too used to become dirty ' وُه لِبَاس بِعِي مَيلا كُچيلا هو جاتا and tattered.'

· life is dear to one under all circum جاں هر حال میں پیاری هوتی

stances.' 'when his desire was (became) satisfied.' جب خواهِش أُسْكِي رُورِي هُورِي هُورِي you are (= thou art) an inhabitant of تُم دِهْلِي كَي رهْن والي هو

'all men are not alike' سب آدمی ایک سے نہیں هوتے

- Rem. a. When the subject is a noun (pronoun) which has the same form for the singular and plural (as in the last of the above examples), the predicate is a guide to the number of the subject.
- Rem. b. Perfect concord in number of the feminine participles in the above examples would require the forms لکھیں ,کرتیں, but such forms are now obsolete. (§ 169, Rem.)
- 288. A plural predicate is often connected with a personal subject in the singular, as a mark of respect or politeness: as-
- His Majesty was (became) much مهاراج سُنكر بهُت خُوش هُوئي pleased on hearing (it).'
  - your Honour's observation is to the point' (lit. 'your Honour observes justly').

Rem. The third person plural is sometimes used without a defined subject to denote a common saying, or the general use of a term, or a general opinion: as کتے کیے 'they say or call.' But the noun of Agency of the same verbs may be employed as subject: e.g. کہنے والے 'the tellers relate.'

289. Some Arabic plurals (broken and regular), as 'circumstances,' اسباب 'property,' 'articles,' 'investigation,' البرات 'a casualty,' and perhaps a few more, are commonly regarded as singular collectives, and connected with a singular predicate; others, as اوليا 'great men,' مشائح 'elders,' and one or two more, are used both in the singular and plural; in the use of these

<sup>1</sup> Misled by the repeated use in the Bāg o bahār of certain Arabic broken plurals with singular verbs, the European grammarians appear to think that all, or nearly all such plurals may be constructed with a singular predicate, or have a singular adjective connected with them. But so far is this from being the case that very few (perhaps not more than six or eight) of these plurals are used as singular collective nouns. In تِ طَاوِّس مين جواهِر جزَّوايا - جواهِر خريدة the Bag o bahar we find and other instances of broken plurals treated as singular collectives which scholars of the present day by no means approve. The following remarks on the above constructions by a scholar of distinction, M. Shaikh 'Abdullah of Cawnpore, will show what opinion native scholars hold respecting them: چونک جواهر جمع هی جزُّوايا فِعْلِ مُفْرِد لانا صحِيم نبيس هي - صحِيم جزُّوائي هي - مگر بعض الفاظِ جمَّع كو أرَّدو مين مُقْرِد بهي مُسْتعْمل كرِّت هيں - جَيس لفَّظِ أُولِيا أُور مَشَائِخ \_ شايد نواح دِهْلِي ميں جواهِر كوبهِي مُغْرَد بوليَّت هوں \_ مگر اِس طرف مُقْرِد مُسْتَعْمل نہیں هوتا۔ نہ کِسِی دِهْلِی والے سے سُنا نہ کسِی کے کلام میں دیکھا۔ میر حسن کِی مقنوِی میں ایک جگہہ جواهِرجڙا آيا هي \*

Did space permit, we could here add the opinions of distinguished Dehli scholars also. It is to be hoped, however, that the above will suffice to show that the Bag o bahar cannot be safely taken as a perfect representative of the Urdū of the present day.

plural forms the student must be guided by the practice of the best modern writers. Examples are:

'as much property as there was in the house.'

this is my case' (these are my circumstances). سيرا يبه احوال همي 'I am a chief and a great personage 'مَين رئِيسَ أور اكابِر اِس شَهْر of this city.'

'investigation is taking place.' تَحْقِيقَاتُ هُو رَهِي هَي 'a casualty has occurred.'

Rem. اسّباب is also constructed as a plural, especially when it signifies causes or means: e.g. اسّباب کیا هَیں 'what are the causes of this progress?'

290. If two or more subjects of different persons have a common predicate, the subjects are arranged in the order of the persons, beginning with the first, and the predicate is put in the *first person plural* if one of the subjects is of this person, and in the *second person plural* if the subjects are of the second and third persons: e.g.

الفيم تُم دَوَّتِيں 'let me and you run' (lit. us and you). I and the other (man) my companion 'مَين أور وُمْ دُوسرا ميرا ساتيجي fled thence.'

you and Mohan together (lit. having "ثم أور موهن مِلْكُر أَسْكُو مارو united) beat him.'

291. Two or more connected subjects of the third person (singular or plural), when they denote living beings, usually take the predicate (verb, participle, adjective) in the plural, and the predicate agrees with them in gender,

if they are all of the same gender; but if they are of different genders, the masculine is preferred: e.g.

'Mohan and Kallū came to my place.' موهن أور كلُّو ميري هال آئے Amīran and Naṣīban were going to أميرن أور نصيبين مذَّرس كو

school.' جاتِي تَهِيں 'his mother and father are dead.' أَسْكَ مَا بَاكِ مَرَّكُمُ مُعِين

an old man and his old woman arrived ' ایک بُوڙها اَور اُسْکِی بُڙهِيا وهاں there.

male and female are found in date- کھیجگور کے درختوں میں بھی نرو 

Rem. If دونوں, سب, کُچه, کوئی, or any similar word is in apposition to the subjects, the verb of course agrees with it as its proper wife and children, no one ' زنی و فرزند کوئی ساتھ نہ جائیگا subject: as will accompany (him).'

- 292. But if the connected subjects denote things or ideas (or partly living beings and partly things), the following cases arise:
- 1) If the subjects are all singular and of the same gender, the predicate agrees with them in gender, and may be put in the singular or plural, but the singular is preferred: as

from it spring cowardliness, mean- اُس سے بُز دِلِي أور كم هِمْتِي أور سے غیرتی وَغَیرہ پیدا ہوتی spiritedness, and spiritlessness,' etc.

هي or هوتي هَيس selfishness and covetousness pre- خُون غرضِي أور طمّع غالِب dominate.' هُوتِي هُي أُرَّمَتِهُ dominate.' رُغْب أُور وقار جاتا رَهْتا هُي

The predicate must however be put in the plural if one or more of the subjects is in the plural: as—

'his) senses were not in proper order.' هوش و حواس بجا نه تب

2) If the subjects are of different genders, the predicate (verb, participle, adjective) usually agrees with the last in gender and number, but it may agree with the masculine even when it is not the nearest subject: e.g.

tranquillity and ease were visible on ' چاروں طرف امنن أور آسُودگِي all sides.'

'.displeasure and vexation possess him' أَسْكُونَا خُوشِيَّ آُور رَبِّج هُوتا هَي

<sup>1</sup> These rules, as also many others laid down in these pages, will be found to differ materially from those of Forbes and other grammarians, who base their rules on the language of the  $B\bar{u}g$  o  $bah\bar{u}r$  and other such antiquated works alone, quite ignoring the literature of the present period; as though Urdu had in no way changed or improved since the time of Dr. Gilchrist. Of this we shall have more to say elsewhere. We may here content ourselves with subjoining, in corroboration of what is stated above, the opinion of two distinguished scholars, the one an inhabitant of Dehlī, the other of Lakhnau:

اگر معطوف عليه مُذكّر هو أور معطوف مُؤنّث تو فِعْل ميں علامت مُؤنّث كِي لاحِق كرينگ \_ أور اگر معطوف عليه مُؤنّث أور معطوف مُذكّر (M. Imām Bakhsh, Urdā) هو تو فِعْل ميں علامت مُذكّر كِي لاحِق كرينگ (Gram. p. 118.)

جب حضرت شاہ Discussing the following sentence from the Bag o bahar مشارک شاہ حجمال نے قلع مساوک اور جامع مسجد اور شہر بناہ تعمیر کرایا۔

the lastmentioned scholar remarks عبارت مذکور میں کرائی فعل مونت الانا اولی in the above-cited passage it is better and more chaste to use و فصیح هی feminine verb.

houses for travellers and lofty build- 'elizable' all مُسافِر خانے أور عِمارتبی ings are found constructed here and there.'

abstinence and content are found in it 'زُهْد و قناعت أس ميں اِتَّنِي to this degree.'

the clothes, plutes, and books are 'کپّڙي باس آور کِتابيں بهُت very good.'

respecting whom he spoke in so much 'جِسْكِي آئَنِي تعْرِيف أور اِشْتِياتِ 'praise, and evinced such longing.'

praise, and evinced such longing.' ظاهِر کِیا 'many sticks and thorns were collected 'many sticks and thorns were collected (by me),' or 'I collected a large quantity of sticks and thorns.'

Rem. The last subject, though singular by form, may be plural in idea, in which case the predicate will be put in the plural; as عقل المعلق ا

293. If the predicate consists of to become,' 'to prove to be,' or one of the verbs mentioned in § 262, and a substantive, the verb is usually regulated in number and

gender by this substantive if it immediately precedes the verb, and is defined by a genitive or an adjective: as—

this crown and robe and (those) pearls ' يه تاج و خِلَعت اَور دُرَ و جواهِر and jewels might make up the capital stock of a thousand merchants.' ' putting together words (concocting stories) from this side and that, and deceiving, becomes his habit.'

294. A declinable adjective which is connected as an attribute with two or more substantives of different genders usually agrees with the masculine if the substantives denote living beings; but if they denote things or ideas, it generally agrees with the nearest: as—

'such calamities and fearful places' أيسي آفتين أور خطَّرناك مقام 'so much praise and longing.' إثّنِي تعريف أور إشّتِياق

295. An impersonal proposition, by which the existence of an action or relation is asserted, without being referred, as predicate, to any noun for its subject, is formed 1) by the verb خاهنات 'it is proper or necessary;' 2) by the verbs مناسب 'with one of the adjectives الزم 'proper,' أحب 'right,' 'necessary,' etc., followed in each case by a subordinate proposition to which the assertion refers: as—

'it is necessary that he so deal with them.' حاهِیتُے کِد اُن سے اَیسا برّتاؤ کري it is right that he act on this.'

# CHAPTER VII.

THE ARTICLE; THE RELATIONS OF SUBSTANTIVES IN A SENTENCE, AND THE CASES.

- a) ON THE ABSENCE OF THE ARTICLE IN URDU.
- 296. Urdū, like Sanskrit and the modern Āryan languages, possesses no definite article: thus be translated by either 'house,' or 'a house,' or 'the house,' according to the context.
- 297. Some nouns however are in their very nature definite, e.g. پُورب 'the East,' etc., and all proper names. Others are rendered definite—
- 1) by standing in apposition to a proper name; as کراچيي 'the seaport of Karāchī;' حکيم بيڏپائي 'the seaport of Karāchī;' حکيم بيڏپائي
- 2) by standing in the relation of governing noun to a proper noun in the genitive, when this is explicatory ' زيرباد كا ديس as زيرباد كا ديس 'the country of Zerbād;' يُونان كا يادْشاه' 'the king of Greece.'
- 3) by being connected with the demonstrative pronouns, which, in many instances, may be properly rendered by the English definite article: as وَهُ كِتَابِ جِسْكَا وَرَقَ يَهُ اللّٰهُ وَا هُي 'that, or the book, a leaf of which is torn.'

Rem. According to the native grammarians not only are all proper names, personal, demonstrative, and relative pronouns, definite or

determined (مغرف), but a noun which governs any of these in the genitive is also definite; thus موهن كا لؤكا signifies properly 'the child of Mohan,' and not 'a child of Mohan's.'

298. If it be desired to point out a noun as indefinite, the numeral adjective 'one, a, an' (called کوئي 'one, a, an' (called ایک 'the indefinite particle') or the indefinite pronoun کوئي 'some one,' 'a certain one,' is employed for the purpose, with this distinction, however, that the former more commonly particularizes the substantive, implying that only one person or thing is understood, whereas the latter implies that some one out of many, or something not described, is intended: e.g.

ن عِلْم ایک اچَهِی چِیزهَی 'knowledge is a good thing.' عِلْم ایک اچَهِی چِیزهَی زاهِد کو 'a king gave a costly robe to a certain فیمتِی خِلْعت دِی devotee.'

a duck used to remain by the margin کیسِی تالاب کے کِناری ایک بط of some tank.'

299. If some indefinite portion or quantity of a thing is implied, the word غُجِهُ is placed before the noun in the singular or plural; as بازار سے کُجِه چُوزا لے آنا 'bring some chickens from the market' (see § 399).

- b) THE RELATION OF SUBSTANTIVES IN A SENTENCE.
- 300. The relation in which a noun (substantive, adjective, participle, pronoun) stands to the other parts of a sentence, is denoted by its case, or by a postposition with its noun.
- 301. Nouns which stand in the same relation, stand also in the same case: e.g.

1) The appositive (tābi') and its matbū'; as هماري آقا 'by our master Sindbād,' سِنْدْباد نِه 'a ser of oil;' ایک سیر تیل 'a yard of cloth;' ایک وری 'a bīghā of land;' لاکه گهوری 'ten thousand horses.'

Rem. Nouns denoting measure or quantity are coordinate with the noun denoting the thing of which they form a part. Native grammarians, however, do not regard the two nouns as in apposition, but call the second of the two nouns the specification (تعمير) of the first. When a noun is preceded by a numeral adjective (عدد), it is termed or numbered. It is wrong to say of such nouns that "they are put in the nominative," for the two nouns may be in any case: e.g. what can be done with two sers of ght?'

- 2) Words which are connected by conjunctions, enumeration, and antithesis; as جاهِل طلب كُرِتا هَي مال كو اَور عاقِل the fool seeks wealth, and the wise man perfection.'
- 3) The word with which a question is put, and that which conveys the answer; as أِس كُو كِس نِه مارا 'by whom was he beaten?' ('who beat him?'), (امارا) 'by me;' مُرهن كا 'whose house is this?' يبه كِسْكا گهر هَي 'Mohan's;' مُرهن كا ليئه بناته هو 'for whom are you making (it)?' كس كَه لِيئه بناته هو 'for such-and-such a gentleman.'

# I. THE NOMINATIVE CASE.

- 302. The Nominative is used to denote the subject of which a verb is predicated; مَين ازْكُوں كو پڙهاتا هُوں 'I teach boys,' or 'I am teaching the boys.'
- 303. The Nominative is also used as the predicative noun, 1) with verbs signifying to be or become, to prove, issue, turn out; as زیکلنا, هو سکنا, هوجانا, هونا, هوزنا, هو نینا, هو سکنا, هوجانا, هونا, هو خانا, هو نائا, هو سکنا, هو خانا, هو خانا, هو نائا, هو سکنا, هو خانا, هو خانا, هو خانا, هو خانا, هو خانا, هو خانا, هو نائانا, هو سکنا, هو خانا, هو خانا

remain, ' to stand or last,' etc.; 3) with passive verbs of naming, calling, making, esteeming, etc. (cf. §§ 262 and 351).

304. The Nominative is often employed absolutely to avoid the use of two or more consecutive nouns in an oblique case, and the case in which these nouns would stand is then taken by a following pronoun or pronominal adjective. This construction is also commonly employed when attention is called to the subject (with which the following pronoun is put in apposition), or when a relative explanatory sentence is inserted between the nominative and the verb: e.g.

يا کِسِي کِي بد اِعْتِقادِي کا **ذِکْر** كَرْنَا أُورِ عَلَىٰ هٰذَا ٱلْقِيَاسِ ـ سب غِيبت ميں داخِل هي

to pick holes in any one's dress, or to فیری میں عَیب زِکالْنا۔ speak of the untrustworthiness of any one, and so forth-all is comprehended in the word Slander.'

نِگَهُمانِي كے لِيئے وهاں پہڑتا تھا۔ نظراً سُکِي جوں کبُوتر پر پڙي

a villager's son, who was moving ' گُنُوار کا ایک لڑکا جو کھیت کجی about there to watch the field-as soon as his eye fell on the pigeon.'

کا ھی۔ تُمهاري باپ نے اُسکے ساتھ دوشتِي پَيدا کِي تِھي

'Malik Sādik, who is the king of the Jinn - your father had formed a friendship with him.'

' اور بغُض باتیں غربی اُور فارسی کِی۔جنّکا جانّنا نُو آموزوں کو ضرُوري أور مرُوجب هوشياري ا كا تها ـ وُه بهي درّج كِي گذیر ,

and certain matters pertaining to the Arabic and Persian, the knowing of which was essential, and a means of enlightenment to young scholarsthey also have been introduced.

305. The Formative plural of nouns denoting periods of time, when used collectively and indefinitely, is used in place of the nominative: e.g. برّسون گذر گئے 'years passed away.'

#### II. THE AGENT.

306. When the verb of a sentence is transitive, such that its perfect participle has a passive character, and the tense employed is one which is formed with this participle (the Indefinite Past, the Present Perfect, the Past Perfect, the Past Potential, and one of the forms of the Past Conditional), the structure of the sentence (owing to the nature of the participle) takes a passive form, the near or direct object (the Accusative) is made the subject of the verb, and the agent of the act is put in the Agent case: e.g.

'His Majesty asked after my condition' مہاراج نے میرا حال پُوچھا (lit. 'by the king my condition was asked ').

they gave me good advice' (lit. 'by أنهوں نے مُجُكُو اَجَّهِي صلاح بتّلائِي them to me good advice was given').

'Ihad purchased articles of merchandise' مَين نے تِجارت کِي اَجْناس (lit. 'articles of merchandise had been purchased by me').

307. A sentence as object (or subject) of a verb is treated as a singular masculine noun; hence—

ن مَیں نے عہد کیا تھا کے پیر کمیسی i had vowed that never again would 'I breathe the word Travel' (lit. 'that I will never again take the name of Travel, had been vowed by me').

308. But if, for any reason, the object is constructed with , or in other words takes the Dative form, the

concord between it and the verb is broken, and the construction becomes impersonal, the subject, in the form of the pronoun of the third person singular masculine, being implied in the verb: e.g.

they crushed the snake's head' (lit. 'as to the snake's head, it was crushed by them').

as regards his petition, it has been عرف است کو قبُول 'as regards his petition, it has been accepted by us').

of earning (their livelihood), or lit. 'with reference to men, by God, for the purpose of earning, it has been made,' i.e. the act of creating by God, in reference to men, has been with a view to (their) earning.

- 309. One or two transitive verbs, as بُولًا 'to speak,' to forget,' the perfect participles of which are regarded as lacking a passive character, are not constructed according to the above rules; as مَيْن بولا (not مَيْن نِه بولا) 'I spoke.'
- 310. Compound verbs, such as كآ ك (and its contraction كا) 'to come with, to bring,' كا خان 'to go away with, to take away,' كا جانا 'to eat up,' etc., the first member of which (as also the whole verb²) is transitive, and the
- To these the people of Lakhnau and of Southern India add the verb 'to understand,' 'to think;' whereas Dehlī authors rarely treat this as a neuter verb. In the Khirad Afroz this verb, as also نور , is repeatedly treated as neuter, but sochnā, like būlnā, is sometimes a transitive and sometimes an intransitive verb. Other verbs, which are added to the above exceptions by some European grammarians—as تراقب 'to fear' (to be afraid), القرافب 'to fail, to fall short' (of), القرافب 'to be in contact' (with), 'to take' (to)—are essentially intransitive, and hence cannot possibly take the passive construction.
- <sup>2</sup> Forbes's rule—which Messrs. Williams and Dowson repeat—is: When the last member of a compound verb is neuter, the whole verb is neuter, and when it is transitive, the whole verb is transitive. This rule, we may observe, is not based on

Rem. In two or more co-ordinate sentences with a common subject, the last of which takes the passive construction with the Agent case, and the other (or others) the active with the Nominative, or vice versa, the Agent or the Nominative (as the case may be) of the last sentence is generally not expressed: e.g.

he mounted the horse and took the 'وُه گَهُوڙِي پرسُوار هُوا آور جنگل road to the jungle.'

\* road to the jungle نام نے میرا ہاتھ۔ پگڑا 'a servant seized my hand, and began

to say to me.' أور (وُلا) "مُجَهِد سے كريّن لكا

This construction serves to show that (as we have already remarked), according to the conception of those who now speak Urdū, the Agent case is simply a modified form of the Nominative, from which it is distinguished by the sign في , and by its exclusive use with the tenses formed from the perfect participle of transitive verbs. When a Hindūstānī says, for instance, مَن وَ رَوْتِي كَهُ لَهُمْ , he means not 'bread was eaten by me,' as the construction implies, but 'I ate bread.'

## III. THE GENITIVE.

311. The Genitive of a word denotes that another stands with it in the relation of connection, and is in this

way defined by it. The genitive serves chiefly to show the relation of the substantive so used to some other substantive (or word used substantively), so that both substantives together express one idea; it is however also connected with some adjectives.

- 312. The Genitive in Hindūstānī, it should be borne in mind, is, as regards its origin, an Adjective (§ 43), and therefore, like other Hindī adjectives terminating in  $\bar{a}$ , it inflects for gender and number so as to agree with the noun it defines.
- 313. The Genitive may either precede or follow the word by which it is governed (§ 277 et seq.).
- 314. The Genitive after *substantives* is used, generally, to denote dependence of any one substantive upon another: as—

the pretence of friendship.' دوسّتِي كا بهانا 'the road of, i.e. to the desert.' صحّرا كِي راه 'a ship of, i.e. laden with men.'

Hence the Genitive depends upon خاطر, وانسطے, لیئے, etc. signifying for the sake (of), on account (of), and on other postpositions, which are nouns in the Ablative and Locative: as باپ کے لیئے 'for the sake of, or for (my) father,' 'on my account.' (See § 238 et seq.)

Rem. The locative of the Reciprocal Pronoun I as governing noun is frequently omitted: e.g.

a natural antagonism exists between سيري تيرى دُشَمنِيَّ ناتِي هَي me and thee.'

a friendship existed between a tortoise 'ایک کچّهوی اور برمچُهو کے دوستی and a scorpion.' so that that same may be a sign 'کِ میري تیري وُهِي پتا هووي between me and thee.'

- 315. Genitive of Relation.—The Genitive is used to denote relationship: as موهن کا بيتا 'Mohan's son,' لڙگون کا 'the father of the children.'
- 316. Possessive Genitive.—The Genitive denotes a thing possessed by a possessor, and the possessor of a thing possessed: as گير کا مالک 'the owner of a house,' موهن کِي 'Mohan's book.'

نيه كِتاب موهن كِي هُي 'this book is Mohan's.' 'mine was a strange predicament at ميرا أس وقّت عجب حال تها that time.'

318. The Genitive of possession in connection with a following verb (هونا , تها , هونا , etc.) often stands without a governing word: e.g.

'an ass which had no tail' (lit. 'of which there was no tail').

the ass had no heart and ears.' گدھے کے دل اُور کان نہ تھا 'they had no child (their's was no child).'

أَسْكَ سَخَّت چوٿ لَكِي هَي (he has received (become possessed of) a severe injury.'

the foot-traveller had not gone many پیادہ کڑی قدم نہ گیا تھا کِ ایک \*steps when a horse kicked him.

Rem. In sentences like the first three of the above, it is probable that a postposition, such as پاس or علی (vulg. يهای), is understood.

But in the last two the native grammarians, and all native scholars, will not allow that any word is understood; but maintain that the construction is that of the Persian,  $\leq$  taking the place of the preposition  $\Leftrightarrow$ ; e.g.  $\Leftrightarrow$  (for  $\Leftrightarrow$  ). This is intelligible if the construction occurs in Urdū alone. But we are not sure that it does not occur in Hindī also; and if this be the case, it would seem more probable that  $\leq$  is here an independent postposition, derived (like  $\leq$ ) from the Sanskrit krite.

319. Subjective Genitive.—The Subjective Genitive indicates the subject of the action expressed in the word on which it depends: as

'Mohan's running away.' موهن کا بھاگٹ جانا 'Mohan's running away.' ' when Hindbād perceived Sindbād's هِنْدْبادنے جو سِنْدْبادکِي محبّت ''regard (for him).'

art's producing a resemblance to طبیعت کے ساتھ صناعت کا nature.'

320. Objective Genitive.—The Objective Genitive denotes the object of the action, feeling, or notion, expressed in the word on which it depends: as

'lust of the world.' دُنْیا کِی هُوَس 'the thanksgiving of, i.e. to God.' 'the fear of God.' نُدا کا خَوف 'the sorrow of others.' آوروں کِی تگلیف

'they have an affection for this thing.' أَنْكُو إِسَ بات كِي مَحَبَّت هَي 'they consider the seeing of me unlucky.'

Rem. The Objective Genitive is of common occurrence with the so-called nominal verbs, i.e. when a substantive in the accusative is added to such verbs رکھنا , کرنا , etc., to complete the notion of the verb:

e.g. مَنِينَ جُو بَيلَ كَيَ مَارْنِهَ كِي كُوشِش كُرْتا هُوں 'the effort which I am making to kill the ox;' مَنِينَ تَعْرِيفَ كُرِين 'that he should make so much praising of (should praise so much) a stone.'

321. Partitive Genitive.—The Genitive is used with substantives and words used substantively to indicate the whole of which a part is taken: c.g.

ن آغاز قِصّے کا 'the beginning of the story.' آغاز قِصّے کا 'the top of the mountain.' پہاڑ کِی چِوٹی 'a piece of diamond.' میری کا تُکڑا 'a half of the field.'

Rem. But if the part taken is a definite weight, measure, or quantity, the noun denoting the whole is put in apposition: as تين سير دُوده. 'three seers of milk;' ايک بيگها زميس 'a yard of cloth;' ايک بيگها زميس 'a bīghā of land;' ايک بُوند پاني 'a drop of water' (cf. Rem. § 301, 1).

322. With the Partitive Genitive also are construed nouns expressing the superlative. The Genitive in this case designates the whole out of which some one or something is brought conspicuously forward as its most prominent part: e.g.

نسب طالعِلْمُوں کا اَجَّهَا 'the best of all the students.' خُلْق کِي صَدَّر 'the chief seat of the assembly.' أُنْمِين کا چهوٿا نے سے چهوٿا 'the least of them.' اُنْمِين کا چهوٿا نے سے چهوٿا 'people of the highest rank.' عِلْم کا اعْلٰی مَرْتب 'the highest stage of knowledge.'

Rem. If it is desired to indicate that an object is the greatest or most distinguished of its kind, the substantive is often repeated in the form of the definite genitive plural. This construction occurs chiefly in Persian and Arabic phrases: e.g. خُداوِلْدِ خُدايِلُلُ 'the lord of

bords,' J.e. 'the supreme lord;' اوبيرُ الأمرا 'the Amīr of Amīrs, the

- 323. Explicative Genitive.—The Explicative Genitive, or the Genitive of Definition, is closely connected in signification with the Partitive Genitive. It is used to indicate—
- 2) the relation between the material and the form; as سونے 'a watch of gold' (a gold watch); کا تبہ کا صنّدُوق 'a lock of steel.'

In this case the Genitive has quite the force of an adjective.

3) the relation between the *species* and the *genus*, and the definition or explanation of a *general* or *universal* by a *special* or *particular*: as—

a date-tree (a tree of the date kind).' کیجُور کا درخت 'sandal wood (wood of the sandal kind).' صنّدل کی لگریی 'the country of Zerbād.'

لا نوربال کا دیس 'the word (of) ma'.'

لا نورکا نام ناهٔ گفر کا 'I will not breathe the word (of) Travel.'

In the three last examples we should rather have expected a substantive in apposition.

324. Genitive of Kind.—The Genitive is also put with words which denote a number, measure, or quantity, to indicate the kind, and the thing measured or counted: as—

a body of servants.' خادِموں کا ایک گروہ 'a ship-load of men.' آدمِیوں کا ایک جہاز 'a space of three days.'

325. Genitive of Quality.—The Genitive, generally with an adjective (numeral, genitive), is used to indicate a quality of, or to describe, the noun on which it is dependent: as—

a matter of great wonder.' بڑي تعجُّب کِي بات 'a small-headed man.' 'عبوت سِر کا آدَمِي 'a small-headed man.' (م قد کا آدَمِي 'a man of this form and stature.' اس صُورت و قد کا آدَمِي 'a boy of ten years.' عبيس بيگه کا کہيت 'a field of twenty bīghās.' عبار کوس کا فاصِله 'a distance (intervening space) of four kos.' پانچ سير کا وزن 'two seers of, i.e. in weight.'

326. Genitive of Value.—The Genitive is also used (generally with an adjective of quantity) to indicate the value of a thing, and its price, if some word signifying price is expressed: e.g.

what may be the value of this property?'

'he sets a high value on this.' اِسْكِي بَرِّي قَدْر كَرْتَا هَي 'he purchased cloth to the value of 'اُس نِه دُس رُوَيَي كَا كَبَرَّا خريدا ten rupees.'

' what is the price of this box ' إس صنْدُوق كِي كيا قِيمت هي

327. The Genitive is also used to distinguish a thing to which something belongs as its contents, appurtenance, etc.: e.g.

'a gugalet of (i.e. containing) water.' پانِي کِي صَراحِي 'water of (i.e. contained in) the river.' دریا کا پانِي 'provision for three days.'

328. Genitive after Adjectives.—Many adjectives are commonly construed with the genitive. They are chiefly Persian and Arabic active participles, or nouns of agency, and Arabic passive participles, signifying desirous, seeking, coveting, envying, necessitous, beloved, producing, causing, requiring or exacting, following, obeying or subject to, helping, opposing, hindering, fitness, capacity, similitude, guilt, etc. Some Hindī adjectives also, and nearly all Hindī nouns of agency, are used with a genitive: e.g.

be desirous from your heart of the 'اپنے ابْنائے جِنْس کِی بِہْترِی کا دِل well-being of your fellow-creatures.'
موزی کا طالب 'a seeker after subsistence.'

those men who are covetous of جُو آدَّمِي مال کے حارِص هَيي wealth.'

thirsting for (eagerly desirous of) اُسَکّے خُوں کا پِیاسا his blood.'

'I am not hungering for wealth.' مَين مال كا بهُوكها نبِين 'they become envious of them.'

'they (stand in) need (of) warning.' وُه عِبْرت کے مُختاج هَیں 'they (stand in) need (of) warning.' تاکِ اَپّنے خُداونّد کا پارا هو of your Lord.'

it becomes the object of men's آڏوييوں کا مخبُوب بن جاتا تھي affection.'

If desire require (is the demander ' اگر خواهِش کِسِي آیسے فِعْل کِي 'of) any such action.'

the Holy God also becomes his 'خُداونَّدِ پاک بِجِي اُسْکا مددّگار helper.'

they consider knowledge the enemy عِلْم كو أَسْكَا مُخَالِف جانْت كَين thereof.'

anything that is an obstacle to the 'جو امّر اُسّکے حُصُولِ مطلب کا attainment of his object.'

he does not become guilty of con- وُه هَتَكِ عدالت كا مُجْرِم نبِيس tempt of court.'

he becomes guilty (commits the 'وُه قَتْل كَا مُرْتَكِب هوتا هَي 'he becomes guilty'

 and three-fourths (of it) is unfit to be told.

329. A genitive may be governed by two or more connected nouns, in which case, if these denote *living beings*, and are of different genders, the genitive is usually put in the masculine plural; but if the nouns denote *things* or *ideas*, it generally agrees with the nearest noun: e.g.

'Kallū's mother and father.' کُلُّو کے ما باپ 'Kallū's mother and father.' اُس شَخْص کے زن و فرزنّد children).'

the character, custom, and style of ' أس اخْبار كِي كَيفِيت أور دستُورِ السَّرِورِ عَلَيْنِ اللَّهِ اللَّهِ عَلَيْنِ اللَّهِ اللَّهِ عَلَيْنِ اللَّهِ اللَّهِ عَلَيْنِ اللَّهِ اللَّهِ عَلَيْنِ اللَّهِ عَلَيْنَ اللَّهِ عَلَيْنِ اللَّهُ عَلَيْنِ اللَّهِ عَلَيْنِ عَلَيْ

Rem. The masculine is occasionally used: e.g. کو حشم کا و حشم نامین 'a description of whose pomp and state.' This is especially the case if the nearest noun be one of those the gender of which is not settled: e.g. جان و etc. (see § 28, 8, Rem. e): as تمهاری جان و 'your life and property.'

330. If an Urdū genitive is governed by a Persian genitive phrase, one noun of which is masculine and the other feminine, the genitive usually takes the masculine affix: e.g.

'the bettering of his fellow-creatures.' اپنیے ابنائے جِنْس کِی سِتری 'from the style of our discourse.' هماري طرز بيان سے 'the repaying of thanks for kindly notice.'

331. A genitive that is governed by a predicative substantive connected with a *singular* (masculine) subject in

the plural form, is invariably put in the plural, whether its governing noun admits of a plural form or not: e.g.

'you are (= thou art) an inhabitant of Dehlī.'

Dehlī.'

you are (= thou art) the servant of such-and-such a gentleman.'

332. If the governing noun denote a person of rank or position who is spoken of, the genitive may be put in the plural as a mark of respect: as جو بانشاه اُس مُنْکُ کے تھے۔ 'who was the king of that country' (cf. § 288).

#### IV. THE DATIVE.

333. The Dative denotes in general that what is asserted by the predicate is done, or holds good for, and in reference to a certain person or thing. This is indicated by the postposition,  $\zeta$ , employed in forming the case, and which signifies originally for the sake of, on account of, in reference to: e.g.

the lion used to appear to those 'وُلا شير أَن بينجاروں كو دِكَمَائِي ديتا unfortunates.'

anything the hearing whereof would 'جس بات کا سُننا سُننے والے کو 'prove disagreeable to the hearer.'

Rem. In the older literature the place of the Dative postposition is frequently supplied by the postposition تَدُين, with a genitive: e.g. كُنَّة, with a genitive: e.g. كُنَّة , with a genitive: e.g. كُنِّة , with a genitive: e.g. كُنِّة , give (it) to the dog.' But the use of this postposition is now almost exclusively confined to the Reflexive Pronoun; as المُنْفَ تَدُين قَدُ لُكُونَا لَهُ اللَّهُ عَلَيْنَ لَعُلِيلًا لَهُ اللَّهُ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ اللَّهُ عَلَيْنَ لَعُلَّا لَهُ اللَّهُ عَلَيْنَ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ عَلَيْنَ لَعُلَّا لَهُ عَلَيْنَ لَكُونَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَ لَكُونَا لِللَّهُ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَ لَكُونَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا لِللَّهُ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا لِللَّهُ عَلَيْنَا لِلْهُ عَلَيْنَا لِهُ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا لَعَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا لَعَلَيْنَا لَعَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا عَلَيْنَا لِللَّهُ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا لَهُ عَلَيْنَا عَل

334. As the remote object in reference to which an

action takes place, the Dative has the signification of for, for the sake of, for the purpose of, in return or exchange for, and hence its use with verbs of selling and buying: e.g.

'as for us, after weeping and lament هم تو تيرِي جان کو رو پيٿ کر تجه ing for your life, we had settled down, giving you up in despair (lit. having washed our hands of you).

'it is sufficient for my whole lifetime.' میری تمام عُمْر کو کافِی هیی 'the prince came out for a stroll.' شهرّزاده سَیر کو نِکْلِی

I am the victim of oppression, I am أُ مَين مَظَّلُوم هُون فَرَّياد كُو آيا هُون come to complain.'

bring water to wash the hands.' ہاتھ فحونے کو پانِي لاؤ 'give (mo) a house near you for me 'آرنے کو مکاں to put up in' (lit. 'to alight').

I sold my horse for two hundred 'I sold my horse for two hundred' بیچا تیوا

"what will you give this book for? نیہہ کِتاب کِتنے کو دوگے

Rem. The Dative of motive or purpose (مُعْعُولُ لَهُ the object on account of which anything is done) is generally a verbal noun (e.g. sair, faryād, utarnā, dhonā, in the above examples), and may always be rendered in English by the gerund with to. The force of the same Dative is very commonly expressed by one of the postpositions رفيل والمنطق بنايل والمنطق والمن

335. The Dative is used after verbs implying motion: as

'the merchant went home (to his house).' خواجه گمر کو چلا 'he went to the bazar.'

'(take care) that no annoyance reach the lion.' کِدَ شَيْرِ كُو رَبِّج نَد پَهُنْجِي

336. The Dative is used idiomatically with the verb 'to meet, or come in contact with,' to convey the idea of acquiring, finding: as

'this boy has got nothing.' اِس لزَّکے کو کُچھ نہیں مِلا! 'he did not find a road or way.'

337. The Dative is used after some adjectives signifying necessary, fit, agreeable, and their opposites, when they are employed as predicative nouns: e.g.

this house is needed by (in requisition for) us.' یبه مکان همکو درگار کهي 'I do not approve of this matter,' lit. 'this matter is not agreeable to me.'

338. The phrases لازم هَي, مُناسب هَي, چاهِيئي, etc. signifying it is necessary, proper, or right, govern the Dative: e.g.

a man should exert (himself) in doing آدّوبي کو چاهیئے کے نیکي میں "a man should exert (himself) in doing good," lit. "it is necessary for a man that he," etc.

it is necessary for him (it behoves ' أَسْكُو لَازِم هَي كِهِ ايكُ كِي بات ' him) that he mention not the words of one person to another.'

339. With the same verbs, and also with the verbs عني and when these imply intention, necessity, or constraint, the Dative is regularly employed before the gerund, the

gerundive, and the perfect participle used as a verbal noun, to denote the subject (cf. §§ 415, 426, and 439): as

we newspaper-writers should consider,' lib. 'for us newspaper-writers considering is necessary or right.'

'you should learn manners' تُم کو ادب سِیکھا (=سِیکھُنا) چاہیئے

'we ought now to consider a bit.' اب همگو دُرّه فِكْر كُرْنِي چَاهِيئَے 'it is right (for you) to mention such 'أيسِي مُفيد باتيں جلّد كهّنِي beneficial matters without delay.'

'if we have to make a watch.' اگر همَّکو گبڙِي بنانِي هَي

we have to provide against all our ' هم كو اِسِي زباں سے اَیْني تمام ' we have to provide against all our ' مرورتیں رقع كرني كيں ميں ...

the government will certainly have (be ' سرکار کو اِس میں ضرور دست constrained) to interfere in this matter.'

340. The Dative of the possessor, with هرنا , تها , خونا to come,' expresses the idea of possession; but the verbs هونا and كآ, with the Dative, more commonly imply entering into and influencing: e.g.

your Honour has many occupations ' خُضُور کو شُغُل بہات سے هَيں (many things to occupy you).'

the alarm and anxiety which we had ' أُس وَقُت هَمْكُو جُو گَهُبُراهِتُ 'we suffered) at that moment.'

and if he have not sense and under ' أور جو عقَّل و شُعُور أَسِي بخُوبِي standing in due degree.' the king derived some consolation ' باذشاہ کو کُچھ تسلِّي دُوئِي (therefrom).'

'jealousy possessed the lion.' شیر کو غیرت آئی 'I derived assurance (I became certain).'

pity for their condition possessed the 'pity for their condition possessed the

Rem. Possession may also be signified by the postposition پاس علی and the genitive of the possessor, instead of the Dative: as أُس كے پاس ايك 'he has a dog (there is a dog in his possession);' and, less commonly, by the verb رَجُهُنا 'to keep,' 'have,' with the Accusative of the thing possessed; as كُوبِّي فَرْزِنْد نَهُ رَبُّهَا تَهَا فَا 'he had no child.'

341. The Dative is used to express time indefinitely: as

a band of robbers came at night.' وات کو ڈاکا آیا 'in the morning, when he rose.'

Rem. The Dative postposition is often omitted, but in such cases the noun always takes the inflected form, if it is capable of inflection: e.g.

in the morning, as soon as he rose, he mounted (his horse).

he has gone home.' وُه گهرگيا کي 'he has gone to eat his food.

## v. THE ACCUSATIVE.

342. The Accusative, in Hindūstānī, occurs only as the objective complement of a transitive verb; as موهن كأو بُدُهو كو مارّتا هَي 'Mohan is reading a book 'كِتَاب بِرَّهْمَا هَي 'Kallū is beating Buddhū.'

Rem. What is predicated of the subject as an action, may be predicated of the object as suffering, so that this takes the place of the subject,

- 343. Whether a verb is transitive depends on its signification, and on the circumstance whether an object is at the same time conceived as immediately acted on.
- 345 Not a few verbs have different significations, so that in one they are transitive and govern the accusative,

وَدُ اَپُنا as أَنْ الله 'he is scratching his hand;' هَا تَهَ كُبُّ عَلَاتًا هَي 'his hand itches;' مَا تَهَ كُبُعَلَاتًا هَي 'he called me;' أَسَالًا 'he called out.'

Rem. It is particularly to be observed that intransitive verbs of motion, when compounded with the conjunctive participle of certain transitive verbs, as لينا 'to take,' دينا 'to give,' نينا 'to leave,' acquire a transitive signification, and are constructed with the Accusative: e.g. السكو ميري پاس لاؤ 'bring him to me;' وَهُ ميري پاس لاؤ 'he left (gave) this book at my house on his way;' لَنَّكُ اللهُ ا

- 346. The Accusative (بفَعُول بِي) has two forms in Urdū; namely, that of the *Nominative*, and that of the *Dative*. Respecting the employment of one or other of these forms the following general rules may be laid down:
- 1) If the verb is one which requires a single object (Accusative) alone, the Accusative generally takes the nominative form, so long as there is no possibility of mistaking the object for the subject: e.g.

'the goat is drinking water.' بگري پانِي پِيتِي هَي 'the goat is devouring a frog.' ساٽُپ بينگ کهاتا هَي 'hear my history.'

'I entertained the hope of meeting 'I entertained the hope of meeting you.'

the executioners that instant seized ' جلادوں سے ووٹنجیس اُسکا ہاتھ پکڑلیا his hand.' Such is the usual form of the Accusative when the object is inanimate, and the subject either animate or inanimate, and its invariable form when the object is the predicative noun of the verb, as in the so-called Nominal Compounds, e.g. اِصْتِماد رِكَهْنا 'to form the desire,' اِصْتِماد رِكَهْنا 'to place confidence.'

2) If, however, the subject and object denote animate things, the object (Accusative) is generally (in the case of rational beings *invariably*) distinguished by the addition to it of the postposition >>, to obviate the possibility of mistake: as

the wolf quickly tore the sheep to pieces.' بهیزیے نے تُڑت بھیز کو پھاڑ ڈالا 'if you can kill the ox in such a way.' اگر تُو اِس طرح بَیل کو مارسکے 'Kallū is beating Buddhū.'

3) If for any reason it is desired to bring the object conspicuously forward, the Accusative is generally put in the Dative form. This usually takes place when the object has been previously mentioned, and occurs again in connection with a demonstrative pronoun, or other defining word or phrase, or when some particular object is specified, or when two objects are contrasted. But much scope is allowed to individual judgment in this matter: e.g.

'after this the slaves took that dish پیر اُس طبق اَور لگن کو غُلام پِنَجْرِي 'after this the slaves took that dish and platter near the cage.'

(اس) جب سائپ کے پاس پہنچے (اُس) 'when you come up to the snake, throw down the ornament near it.'

(یور کو اُسّکے نیزدیک گرا دی نام 'the fox, having dug a hole, had concealed the mouth thereof.'

مماری صاحب شیر کو مارینگے 'our master will kill the tiger.'

347. Cognate Accusative.—Intransitive as well as transitive verbs may be constructed with an Accusative of a substantive derived from the same root, or from another root of corresponding signification (منْعُول مُطّلق the absolute object). This Accusative can never take the Dative form, and it is generally used in connection with an attributive or an adjective of quantity: e.g.

348. Double Accusative.—Many verbs (chiefly causatives derived from transitive verbs) take two objective complements in the Accusative, generally either both of the person, or one of the person and the other of the thing. In such cases the personal object more commonly precedes the other, and is defined by the postposition  $\varsigma$ , the second Accusative being put in the Nominative form: e.g.

he was teaching his class Arith- وُهُ ارْبِي دفَّعه كو حِساب پڙهاتا تها metic.'

'put this dress on him.' أُسِيَّ بِيهِ كُنْوًا بِهُمْنَاوً

he would have got my lord (hus- 'میری خاوِنّد کو پنَّدِّت خانے سے band) released from prison.'

in what religion is it permitted to خُداکے بنّدوں کو کُتّے کا جُهوٹا کِهلانا make God's servants eat a dog's leavings.'

Rem. The Nom. form of the Accusative may, under certain circum-\*I showed him that bag وَهُ تَهيلِي أَسْكُو دِكَهُالرُّبِي stances, stand first: as (cf. § 271); and occasionally both Accusatives may be defined by 5: he gavo his أس نے اپنے بہائي کے حِصّے کو أُسْكِي بيتي كو دِيا as brother's portion to his (the brother's) daughter;' but such examples are of rare occurrence, and must not be taken as a rule; even in this instance it would be perfectly correct to say اینے بھاؤی کا حِصّه. examples like the following, which are cited by Forbes's followers to show that both objects may be defined by ,5, the case of the second noun is not the Accusative (مفعول لـ), but the Dative of purpose (مفعول لـ): I despatched the other to مَسِن نے دُوسْرِي کو اُسْکَے بُلانے کو رُخْصت کِیا they took the prince ' بادشاهٔزادی کو باغ کِی سَیر کو لیگئے '; call him out to stroll in the garden;' and even in such cases the recurrence of is now generally avoided by the use of one of the postpositions کو باغ کِی سُیر کے etc., with the genitive, in place of the dative: as واسطے الملك المسلم

appoint, call, name, and the like, and those verbs which signify an act that takes place in the mind (انعال قال verbs of the heart, as the native grammarians term them), such as المناب 'to find,' خاتا 'to think or deem,' 'to think or imagine,' and the like, take, besides the object (Accusative) itself, the Accusative of a substantive or adjective which constitutes a predicate of the object, and serves to complete the notion of the verb. In such cases the object (or first Accusative) is frequently defined by the postposition '\$\frac{1}{2}\$, and thus the concord between it and the predicative noun (the second Accusative), if it be an adjective or participle, is disturbed, the predicative adjective remaining in the uninflected form of the singular, even

though the object (Acc.) with which it is connected be plural; the verb also (if the tense be one composed of the passive participle) being constructed impersonally (see § 338): as

'to make an evil the means of good.' کسِی بدی کو نیکی کا وسِیله کرنا 'he has made it such a curiosity.' اُسے اَیسا تُحقه بنایا هَی 'I found him very meek.' آسے اَسس نے اُسکو بہت غریب پایا 'I perceive you (to be) sad.

'it is proper that he call that person the builder of the work.'

'any one whom I heard of (as) a doctor of religion.'

'they deem this practice eleverness.'

they deem this practice cleverness ' وُه اِس عادت کو چالاکِي جاٽنے هَيں '.he can make this woman well ' اِس عَورت کو چنّگا کر سکّتا هَي '.he made all the carts stationary ' اُس نے سب گاڙِيوں کو کنڙا کِيا

350. But both Accusatives may have the nominative form, in which case, if the second is an adjective or participle that inflects, it agrees in gender and number with the first (the object): 1 as

It is noteworthy that Forbes's remarks on this point, although too briefly put, are perfectly sound; and yet succeeding grammarians, who generally follow his teaching without question, have in this instance thought proper to depart from it:—"When adjectives ending in  $\bar{a}$  are separated from their substantives, they not unfrequently become petrified as it were by being drawn towards a verb, and thus forming with it a sort of compound, lose their capability of change," is the teaching of Professor Monier Williams ( $Hind\bar{u}st\bar{u}n\bar{i}$  Grammar, p. 93).—"Adjectives are often combined with verbs; if the verb is neuter they agree with the nominative: but if active, they remain in the masculine singular," is Mr. Dowson's rule ( $Urd\bar{u}$  Grammar, p. 141). Not only are these rules wrong as regards the conception of the adjective spoken of, and its relation to the verb and the object, but they serve clearly to show that both these grammarians have failed to perceive that it is the use of the particle with the object that disturbs the concord between this and the predicative adjective.

'consider his harm your (own) harm.' اُسْكَا نُقْصَانَ الْبِنَا نُقْصَانَ سَمْجِهِ 'you have made your face black.' اَيْنَا مُنْهَد تُونِي كَالا كِيا 'stop the cart.'

he keeps no one's difficulties un- وُه مُسْتَكِلَ كِسُوكِي اتَّكِي نهِ مِن رَكَبْتا removed.'

he satisfies (makes complete) his 'وري كرَّتا هَي 'he satisfies (makes complete) his

do not accumulate (lit. make collected,) دُنْیا کِی چِیزیں حاجت سے زِیادہ or in one place) more than (is) necessary of this world's things.'

having erected (various kinds of small شہر کے باہر تنّبُو آور قنات آور ہے and large, poled and pole-less) tents کہڑی کڑواکر outside the city.'

Rem. a. It will be perceived from the above examples that it is the use of the Dative form of the Accusative that disturbs the concord between the object and the predicative adjective or participle. Similarly the concord between an adjective or participle and its substantive is always broken when the substantive is in the Dative form of the Accusative, but in no other case. Of the pronominal Accusatives, both being originally Dative forms, the second ( , , , , , , , etc.) would likewise appear to affect the concord similarly to the first (especially if it be the object of a fe'lk kalb): e.g. (consider me (the princess) arrived. But we also find the seems questionable.

Rem. b. Most of the so-called Nominal verbs come under the class noticed above, and hence the Accusative governed by them is commonly put in the Dative form, and the verb in the Past Tenses (if transitive) is constructed impersonally.

351. In the passive of the verbs of the last class the

direct object becomes the subject, the indirect object remaining in the Dative form of the Accusative: e.g.

if the two be compared' (lit. 'if comparison be made in reference to the two').

son be made in reference to the two').

'it is right that he be called the builder of the work' (lit. 'that builder of the work be said in reference to him').

that I be secured from punishment ' کِ مُجَبَّکُو تَا مُدَّتِ اپِیلَ سزا سے ' that I be secured from punishment'

## VI. THE ABLATIVE.

# 352. The Ablative postposition <u>designates</u>:

- 1) Departure from a place, or from beside a person; as كَلْكُدْ سِهِ بِيشَاوِر تَكُ تَارِ '; starting from Dehlī ' بِرَقِي سِهَ چَلْكِرِي سَهِ چَلْكِرِي ' the telegraph (electric) wire is working from Calcutta to Peshāwar; ' برقي ساه چَنه سِهِ گيا ' he departed from my presence; آب همسي اُنْكِي طَرْف مُلْتَفْت هُونِّه ' your Honour (you) turned from us to them.' Hence it is used:
- a) With verbs (participles, verbal adjectives) that convey the idea of separation, departure, being free, removing, liberating, guarding, concealing, flight, caution, abstinence, avoidance, holding oneself aloof from a person or thing, frightening away, encountering, self-defence, forbidding, hindering, depriving, and the like; and, in general, to express the doing of something towards or in respect to another; as

'he separated (himself) from me.' وُه مُجِه سے جُدا هوگبا 'when we came out from the city.' جب هم شهر سے باهر نِكلے 'he took the cup from my hand.' أس نے ميري هاتھ سے بِيالَه لِيا 'when he finished (ceased from) جب وُد اِس كلام سے فارغ هوا this discourse.'

in order that he himself should be clear of fault.'

be pleased to save me from this بنجهکو اِس سزا سے محفَّوظ رکھیے punishment.'

it is not right to keep a secret 'دوستوں سے بھید چِبہانا دُرُست نہیں 'from friends.'

'I refrained from evil-speaking.' بُرا كَهْنَے سے إِحْتِراض كِيا

'both of us fled from there.' هم دونوں وهاں سے بھاگے

it is right to abstain from this اس کام سے پڑھیز کڑنا مُناسِب کمی matter.'

it is proper to hold oneself aloof 'it is proper to hold oneself aloof

to be on one's guard against such ' أيسِي حِيزوں سے خبرُدار هونا things.'

'I fought with him well.' مَيں اُس سِے خُوبِ لـرّا any one who prevents his desire' جو کوئِي اُسَکِي خواهِش بُورِي هونے 'from being fulfilled.'

'he should so deal with them.' چاهِیئے کہ اُنسے ایسا بڑتاؤ کری

I will treat you so well (will pursue such a course of conduct towards you).'

what concern have I with share ' سُجنے جفی بخری سے کیا کام کمی and portion?'

b) with verbs which signify revealing, knowing, informing, asking, and the like; for in these verbs is implied the idea of the removal of a covering, real or figurative: as

it is revealed by (is evident from) یہہ اُسکی بات سے ظاهِر هوتا هَي his words.'

acquaint us also with the circum' إس احوال سے هميں بھي مُطلِع كرو stance.'

'no one was cognizant of this matter.' اِس بات سے کوڑی واقِف نہ تھا '
nor had he any knowledge of the '
خبر کی کے خبر سنتی سے کُچھ خبر 
worship of God.'

أن باتوں سے آگاہ هوکر 'having become acquainted with these matters.'

'he said to (or told) me.' أس نے مُسجبہ سے كہا 'the king asked the wazīr.'

'I will explain (it) to your honour.' مَسِ حُضُور سے بیان کرُونگا

آپ سے کُچھ عرّض کڑنا کھي 'I have something to say (represent) to you.'

Rem. The verbs بولنا and بولنا are also connected with the dative,

c). With verbs signifying, giving up in despair, abandoning, neglecting, denying, the ability to dispense with a thing, disgust, satiety, and other such verbs as imply the notion of turning away: as

'having despaired of life.' زِنْدگِي سے مايُوس هوكر

having relinquished hope (washed his hands) اَپْنِي جان سے هاته دهوکر of his life.'

abandon (the idea of shedding) his blood;

why are you unmindful of the 'زمانے کِي سَخْتِي سِے کُیُوں ِ غافِل هو ''! wrong doing of the world

they will refuse to obey (will rebel وي إس حُكم سے مُنكِر هو جائينگے against) this decree.'

'I was able to dispense with worldly ' دُنْیا کے مال سے مَیں غنی تھا 'I was able to dispense with worldly

'being disgnsted with it.' أُس سِے كَبِي كَهَاكِر

'' are you so soon weary of me' اَیسِي جَلْدِي مُجِه سے سیر دُوئے ' to be averse to worldly wealth.'

d) With verbs signifying to surpass one: as

'he surpassed all the merchants of وهاں کے سب سَوداگروں سے سَبْقت

that place.'

Rem. But the Locative is sometimes used: e.g. باپ پر بیچی سبقت 'he even surpassed his father.'

e) With verbs signifying coming in contact, meeting and uniting, or connecting: as

'I tied it to my body.' ایّنے بدن سے بانّدھ رکھا 'I tied it to my body.' ایّنے بدن سے بنّدھا دُوا تھا ' the horse was tied to a peg.' نُجورُا میخ سے تعلّق رکھتے دَیں ' they are connected with the brain.' ہتبرسے تکر کھاکر ' having knocked against (come in contact with) a stone.'

I came as far as this for the 'مَسِن أُس سَے مِلْنے كو يہاں تك آيا purpose of meeting him.'

'I will see (meet) him to-morrow.'

Socrates married a shrew' (lit. 'a ' بُقْراط نِه ایک زبان دراز عورت سے اong-tongued woman').

2) The point of time at which an act or state has commenced: e.g.

'from morn to eve.' صُنّے سے شام تک

from childhood he has had this 'چُهَ ﷺ پن سے اُسْکو یہی شُوق کی same taste.'

'discontinue (it) from this date.' آج کِي تاریخ سے مَوقُوف کرو

Similarly, when an expired portion of time is spoken of, it is used to signify for such-and-such a time: as

'he has been absent for three days.' وُه تِبن دِن سِے غَبر حِاضِر هَي 'he has been absent for three days.' ایک مُدّت سے مُجّپکو شَوق کَي inclination.'

3) The origin and source of a thing, and the reason why a thing is done: as

he was perplexed by my action' وُهُ مَيْرِي حَرَّكَتَ سِي حَيْرَانِ كُنْرا ('his perplexity proceeding from, or being caused by, it').

he became much ashamed in conse-الزیے کہنے سے بہات خجیل اور quence of what he said.'

' Man's life lasts through eating and ' اِنْسان کِي زِنْدگِي کھانے پِينے سے دَي ' drinking.'

'he is pleased with us.'

the harm which springs from disorder.'

'hence it is perceived.' يهاں سے معلوم هوتا كي

they begin to bear ill-will towards ' اُنْسے کِینہ کڑنے لگتے کیں them.'

'having recreated himself with music.' واگت سے محظوظ ہوکر

disturbed by the vicissitudes of fortune.

he is weeping through fear of you.' آپ کے خوف سے روتا کھی 'this alone is our real motive in 'انگیے جارِی کرنے سے بیہی ہماری issuing them.'

4) The relation between the act and the *instrument* with which, or the *means* by which, it is performed: as—

'nor would it open with any other key.' کِسِي آور کُنْجِي سے بنِي نہ کَپُلْتا (see with your own eyes.'

that by their means he might make ' کِد اُنکیے وسیلے سے کِشَتُکارِی کے agricultural implements.'

fill the pot with water' (whereas 'گبتری کو پانی سے بھرو implies 'pour گھتری میں یانی بھرو water into the pot till it becomes full').

When the noun in the Ablative denotes a *person*, and the verb is *neuter* or *causative*, the instrument passes into the *agent*: as

I have committed a fault '('a fault فُجِهِ سِي قُصُور هُوا هَي has proceeded from me').

at night-time I was unable to make وات کو مُجه سے گُچه تدبیر نہ ہو همان any arrangement.'

I am having my boy taught Arabio 'I am having my boy taught Arabio 'عربي بڙهاتا هُوں by the Maulavī.'

Rem. In Hindī ن in connection with passive verbs also designates the agent of an act; as راون رام ن ماراگيا 'Rāvan was killed by Rām: but this construction is not common in Urdū.

- 5) It is used with verbs signifying to barter or exchange, to indicate that with which exchange is made: as اپنيي 'I exchanged my goods 'جنس سے اُس مُلْکُ کِي اجْناس بدّلِيں 'I exchanged my goods for articles pertaining to that country' (lit. 'with my goods I exchanged articles pertaining to that country').
  - 6) The mode or manner of an action: as

be pleased to observe (them) with attention ' غَور سے مُلاحظه فرّمایے (attentively).'

'he conducts himself with humility.' إِنْكِسَارِ سِنَ بِيشَ آتَا هَي 'it is produced in great abundance.'

7) The quality of a person or thing, in which case it is generally connected with an adjective: as

' بدن سے ننگا 'naked of body (naked-bodied).' بدن سے ننگا 'with sound legs' ('sound as regards the legs').

'sharp (experienced) in business

transactions.'

Rem. The Locative also may be used to indicate a quality: as جسم و 'big in body (big-bodied); میں بڙي 'nimble in motion, quick of movement.'

8) The distance from, or proximity to, a person, place, or thing, and priority in point of time, after words denoting distance or priority: as

'it is far from this place.' یہاں سے بہُت دُور هَي 'it is far from this place.' 'there was a tiger not far from there.' وهاں سے نزویک ایک شیر تہا 'it is far from (diametrically opposed to) reason.'

to pass beyond the stage (bounds) وعَتِدال کے مرتبے سے آگے بَرُه جانا

فرنے سے بہتے 'before, or previous to, beginning.' مُشْرُوع کُرْنے سے بہتے or آگے 'previous to this time.'

Similarly دروازی سے اندرگیا 'he went in through the door;'
' دروازی سے باہر نِکُلا 'he came out through the door.'

9) The difference between two persons or things that are compared with each other: as

there is a great difference between' کہنے سے اَور کڑنے سے بڑا فرق ھَي saying and doing.'

نس سے کیا مُشابہت کی 'what resemblance is there between this and that?' ('none whatever; they are quite different.')

Hence the use of the Ablative in forming comparatives and superlatives.

Rem. The Locative may also be used to express the difference between two persons or things: e.g. کہنے میں اور کڑنے میں بڑا فرق هی ; and similarly, it may be used to form comparatives and superlatives.

10) The relation which subsists between the part and the whole, the species and the genus, the family or race and u member thereof: as

'you are not of our body.' هماري گُرود سے تُم نہيں هو 'this person is an Englishman (one 'يبہ شخّص انگريزوں سے هَي of the English people).'

Rem. The compound postposition میں نے is also commonly employed to express the same relation: as خاندان میں سے تبی 'his mother came of the stock of the doctors of the religion of Zoroaster.' Similarly, with the Locative postposition

alone: ایک حکیم لُقمان کِي آوّلاد میں (مَوجُود) تھا asage of the family of Lökmān was present.'

11) The definition or explanation of a general or universal by a special or particular: as

'God has given him ease in every اُذَكُو خُدان سب طرح كِي فراغت way,'—e.g. wealth, money, etc.

'in respect of what thing do they pride 'وُد كِس چِيز سے فَخْر كَرْتَے هَيں زور themselves, — strength, courage, bravery?

Rem. The Locative is often similarly used: e.g. تُم كس چيز ميں كم in respect of what thing are you wanting—power, money?

12) Companionship or connection, being equivalent to the postposition ساته with a genitive: as

''I ate bread with curry.' روائِي سالن سے کھائِي مَسِ نے ''you are come with much baggage.' تُم بڑي سامان سے آئے (that) is connected with (concerns) my destiny.'

Rem. a. سے is sometimes used in the sense of پن or بغد: as إس سال as: عدر ند بعد from (upon, after) the passing of this year (when this year has passed).'

Rem. b. The Ablative postposition, like that of the Dative, is frequently not expressed, especially in idiomatic phrases: e.g. إس طرح 'in this way,' عُرگهر 'from house to house,' سب طرح 'from hand to hand,' شاتهوں هاتهوں هاتهوں هاتهوں هاتهوں هاتهوں هاتهوں ديكها نه كانوں سُنا 'from hand to hand,' ماتهوں هاتهوں هاتهو

353. The postposition نے is often combined with the Locative postpositions پر بین, which then have the force of substantives: as

he came out from the inside of the house (he came out of the house).'

'he called out from inside the house.'

النسان كي سب صِنات ميں سے 'from the midst of (from among, of) النسان كي سب صِنات ميں سے all human qualities, generosity is the noblest and the best' (of. § 350, 10, Rem.).

he fell from (fell off) the top of the house.'

Similarly باهر سے 'from the outside,' 'from without;' نام نے سے 'from the front,' 'from before.'

## VII. THE LOCATIVE.

- 354. The Locative postpositions are , which denote, as a rule, essentially distinct relations and ideas, and are therefore better noticed separately.
- 355. میں shows, in general, that one thing is actually in the midst of another, entirely surrounded by it. Hence—
- 1) It indicates rest in a place or during a time, and motion into a place: as أبي سال مبيل 'in the house;' أبي سال مبيل 'in the same year;' وه شير مبيل گيا 'he went into the city;' وي 'they (the bees) return to the hive.' This signification is then transferred to the relation subsisting between any two things, the one of which is regarded as the place in which the other is, or happens, or into which it goes or is put: as

'in the season of youth.' جوانی کے عالم میں 'in the mean time.' 'in a little while.' تَجُورُّي دير مين 'in an easterly direction.' مشرقي جانِب ميں

what gentleness there is in their ' أَنْكِي سِيرِت مبن گيسِي نَزْمِي هَي disposition!'

he came to (recovered) his senses."

mix it in water' (or, according to 'أَسْكُو بِانِي مِين مِلاو our idiom, 'with water').

that they will not become polluted ' کِه نجاست وغَیره مبی آلوده نه هوی (by being mixed up) in filth,' etc.

you lavished treasure in the path of تُو خُداکے رسّتے میں خزانہ لُقایا (for the sake of) God.'

they become entangled in (fall into) مكاري وغَيرة ميں مُنتلا هو جاتے هيس deceit,' etc.

(or اپنے کام میں مشغول (مضرف they are occupied in (discharging) their duties.'

that they labour earnestly in (behalf کے انہنے آقا کِی نیکنامِی میں بدِل of) the good repute of their master.'

Rem. It is sometimes idiomatically omitted: وُهُ غُفِّ هُوا 'he got into (a state of) anger (became angry); اوُه غنس دُوا 'he got into a ruge; ' إن دِنوں 'in that year; ' إن دِنوں 'in these days.'

2) It is often used in the sense of the synonymous words درمیان, signifying among, between, and hence occurs in connection with verbs signifying to unite, reconcile, separate, discriminate, and the like: e.g.

'the princess was not among them.' ملِک أن ميں نہ تھي

dissensions will surely spring up ' فسرُور أن ميں جبگُڙي پَبدَا هونگ

he made peace between men and ' اُنہوں نے آڈوبیوں اور جِتُوں میں ' the Jinn.'

discriminate between truth and 'سپے آور جھُوتِہ میں اِمتیاز کرو falsehood.'

what difference is there between ' أُس ميں أور مُجب ميں كيا فرق هي him and me?'

3) It indicates the subject or thought of conversation, that in which these move: as

he writes about (or respecting) وُو اَيْنِ حَالَ مِينَ لِكُمِتًا هَي اللهِ ال

(you) should consult (some one) اِس مُقدِّمے میں مشورہ کرنا about (or in) this case.'

إلى مين بهُت سِي فِكْركِي '(I) thought much about this.'

Hence it is used in stating the subject of a book or chapter: as

'On the consultation of (held by) the animals.' حَيوانوں كے مشوري ميں 'On Morality.'

4) It is used (like the Ablative), in connection with an adjective, to indicate the quality of a person or thing: as

5) It is employed in the *comparison* of an object with several others, governing the thing with which comparison is made: as

he is the biggest of all the bees (is big compared with all the other bees).' it is the greatest luminary of all 'ساتوں کواکِب میں نیّرِ اعظم کھی 'the seven planets.'

6) It is used absolutely with an adjective or substantive (in the manner of the Ablative Absolute of the Latin), to express a state or circumstance: as

as if I entered Paradise alive' (lit. 'being in a living state').

In such cases the postposition ميں and the participle هوتے are generally understood.

- 7) It indicates the *price* or *cost* of a thing: as
  'how much did this book cost?' (ef. § 326, 334).
- 8) It is used to define or explain a general or universal by a special or particular: as

in respect of what are you lacking 'in respect of what are you lacking '' تُم کِس چِیز میں کم هو زور میں ۔ —power or wealth, etc.?' (ef. 352, 11, and Rem.)

9) It denotes the relation subsisting between the part and the whole, the species and the genus, etc.: as

a sage of the house of Lökmān was ' ایک حکیم نقمان کے خانداں (موجُود) تھا present' (ef. § 349, 10, and Rem.).

10) It is commonly used (instead of the Ablative, § 352, e) to indicate that one thing is close by, or in contact with another, and hence it is construed with verbs signifying to adhere, attach or connect: as

the pieces of diamond stuck to the 'گوشت میں هِیري کے تُکُّرِّي لگت flesh.'

they will attach the sign of the 'فِعْل مِين علامت مُذَكِّر كِي لاحِق masculine to the verb.'

'fasten the bucket to the string.' ڈول کو رتسبی میں بائدھو

Rem. The postpositions پر معنی are sometimes interchanged:

ورکیر میں گیر پر کی 'the book is at home' (where پر کی گیر پر کی 'similarly' 'raiment on (his) body' (where پر کی کی 'similarly' کیا بدی میں نائدھو as : کو 'sometimes used in place of یہ میں نائدھو as نائدھو 'tie (it) to the tree;' کیا کیا 'how much did the book cost?' But in such cases the postposition for which میں (or پر) stands may always take its place; nor is it at all necessary that a verb of motion should precede the noun governed by سی (or پر). We may say کی ہو ہو گیا ہو اور کی کو گیا ہو نازی پر کو گیا نام is not used for, and therefore could not take the place of بہ میں بی نائدہ فیل میں کو گیا ہو۔ ' when he came to the gate of the city;' کی میں لے گیا 'he took me into (inside) a house.'

556. پر (=), over, above, upon, is used—

1) In its original local sense, to denote higher elevation: as

'the bird was sitting on a tree.' چِڙِيا دِرِخْت پر بَيتَبِي تَهِي 'he was mounted on a horso.'
'(God is in heaven (above) خُدا آسْمان پر هَي 'I saw a picture on the wall.'

The same sense is further exemplified in:

he was standing by the side of the 'وُدُ تالاب کے کِناری پر کھڑا تھا 'he was standing by the side of the tank' (because a person standing by a tank rises above the level of it).

'I was seated at the door.' مَين درّوازي پر بَيتْهَا تها 'at (the distance of) a kos or so.' کوس ایک پر فرر کیا جائے 'if their condition be reflected on.' اِعْتِدال پر نظر رکھنا 'to keep the eye on moderation.'

he attends to his affairs himself.' انَّبْنے کارو بار پر خُوں توجُّهٔ کرّتا هَي to stake life upon something (play) انَّبْنِي جان پرکھیلنا for life).'

'have pity on our state.' هماري حال پر رحم كر 'he did not act upon it.'

wonderful and strange events befell ' مُجه پر عجِیب و غریب حوادِث شخه سرعجیب و غریب حوادِث

having become acquainted with my 'اپَنِي نادانِي پر مُطّلِع هوکر folly.'
(at the appointed time.'

2) To indicate an act or feeling directed against an object, or towards it, with a view to getting possession of it: as

they attacked the enemy (made an دُشْمَن پر حمَّله كِيا ' they attack upon him).'

'they) rushed upon him.' أُس پر هُجُوم كِيا ' أُس ير هُجُوم كِيا ' he is angry with me.'

'the cause of displeasure with you.' مُجب پر خفّگِي كا باعِث 'he urged the horse against him.'

they will desire to lay hands on his ' اُسْكِي كمائِي پر قابض هونا چاهينگے earnings.'

to be infatuated with this life of a ' اِس چنّد روز کِي زِنْدگِي پر فريفْته few days.'

'he became enamoured of her.'

3) To indicate a *debt* that is due, and a *duty* that is incumbent *upon* one: as

"I am in debt (a debt is upon me)."

it is incumbent on them.' أن پر فرض هي what God has made obligatory on ' جِس چِيز کو خُدانے أن پرواجِب them.'

4) To denote the distinction or superiority that one thing enjoys over another: as

'Nature precedes (is above) Art.' طبیعت صناعت پر مُقدّم کھی 'they prefer the life of this world ' اِس دُنّیا کِی زِنّدگِی کو آخِرت پر to the life to come.'

5) To indicate the position in which (the ground on which) a person or thing stands in respect of origin, custom, cducation, business, etc.: e.g.

men conform to the ways of their 'آڈمِی اپْنے پاڈشاہوں کے طریقے kings.'

'man does not abide by his promise.' إنْسان انْهنے قَول قرار پر نہیں رهٔتا 'government is based (turns) upon سِیاست کا مدار عدالت پر هَي 'justice.'

every individual thing reverts to هرایک چِیزاپینِی اَصْل پرجاتِی هَی its original.'

when desire exists in (shall conform ' جب خواهِش اِعْتِدال کِي حالت to) a state of moderation.'

6) To denote the cause of or reason for an action: as on account of (through) that same covetousness (of mine).'

'because of this saying of mine.' ميري إس كَبْني پر

for what offence did you beat these 'کِس تَنْصِیر پر اِن عربِیوں کو مارا 'poor creatures ?'

she used to be perplexed (to account) وُه میری قَول قرار کے نِہاهینے پر for my fulfilling my promise.

7) To show the rule or standard according to which something is done: as

'after a proper manner.' مُناسِب طَور پر 'according to his wonted custom.' اَیْنے معَمُول پر 'according to the rules of philosophy.' حِکْمت کے قاعِدی ہر

8) It is sometimes used as equivalent to the Persian phrases با رُجُود ,با وصّف, = in spite of, notwithstanding: as

'notwithstanding so much wisdom.' إِنَّنِي دَانَائِي پر 'in spite of this carefulness of his.' أُسْكِي اِسْ خبرُدارِي پر

Rem. a. The postposition ساته 'along with' is also employed in this sense, and when so used always precedes the pronoun it governs in the genitive: وه و المنابع المن

Rem. b. پر, like the postpositions of the other cases, is often idiomatically omitted: e g. إُرِي وَقَّت 'at this same time; أَسِي نَظْر 'I have fallen under its (evil) eye (it, the snake, has marked me out for its victim); وُهُ مَمِرِي سِر هُونَ لِيَّ ('he began setting upon me' (lit. 'falling on my head'). In every instance however of a postposition being understood, the noun governed by it (if capable of inflection) takes the inflected form.

Rem. o. الكت to, up to, as far as, is erroncously included by some grammarians among the postpositions of the Locative. It designates, properly, the limit attained by a thing, or an action, whether that limit be included or not; as بيال المنافر سے كلكة الله 'from Peshāwar to Kalkatta (Calcutta); 'ان الله 'come as far as my shop;' to such an extent, to this degree.' If it be desired to indicate that both limits are actually included, the past conjunctive participle  $\Delta$  signifying taking, including, is put after the noun in the Ablative; as خال سے لے بات تک from the branches to the leaves

inclusive. Tak is sometimes used in the sense of S and کے لیئے اور زمین وباغ حاصل کرنے کے لیئے مُدتوں لڑی ۔ لوگوں کے حق فصت اور زمین وباغ حاصل کرنے کے لیئے مُدتوں لڑی ۔ لوگوں کے حق فصت and your contending (lit. in that you contended) for long days to acquire lands and gardens, (your) violently usurping the rights of (other) people, (your) forgeries, (your) frauds—all were unto (for) this day.'

#### VIII. THE VOCATIVE.

357. The Vocative case indicates the object addressed: it therefore stands in no connection with other words in a sentence. Its position is usually at the beginning of the ser tence.

Rem. According to the view of native grammarians however, what we call the Vocative is really the indirect object of a suppressed verb: e.g. پُکارْتَا هُوں آدّوي آدّوي 'is regarded by them as equivalent to پُکارْتا هُوں آدّوي 'I call the man.'

- 358. The Vocative is often introduced by an interjection: as او لاکے 'O friend!' او لاکے 'O boy!' but if no particular stress is laid on the address, the interjection may be omitted: e.g. یارو 'boy!' صاحبو 'gentlemen!' یارو 'O friends!'
- 359. An adjective (genitive, possessive pronoun) qualifying a noun in the Vocative is also put in the Vocative: as الرّي ميري لعّل 'O my darling!' أَى خُداكِ بِنَّدِي 'O servant of God!'
- 360. Some nouns occur chiefly in the Vocative case: as الله 'brother!' بهينا 'sister!' مال 'o mother!' الله 'father!' وميال 'father!' وميال 'father!' وميال بي بي دونون تهيد 'both husband and wife were (there).'

## CHAPTER VIII.

### ADJECTIVES.

#### I. THE ATTRIBUTIVE ADJECTIVE.

- 361. The ordinary rules for the construction of the Adjective have been laid down in the preceding paragraphs (274, 280—282, 291, 292, 294, 349, 350, 359). The following are of a more special character.
- 362. Two adjectives that are attributives to one substantive are commonly connected by asyndeton, after the manner of substantives and verbs: e.g. پہتے پُرانے کپّڑے 'ragged old garments;' چپوٹے بڑی لڑکوں سے 'from small (and) big boys.'
- 363. An adjective (generally masculine) may be used without a substantive to denote things or persons: e.g.

'from the good and evil of the time.' زمانے کے بھلے بُری سے ' in the opinion of the wise' عقّلمندوں کے نزدیک

the condition of certain sick persons ' بعض بِيماروں كا يبه حال هوتا كھي is such.'

'small and great made rejoicings.' چھواتے بڑوں نے خُوشِیاں کِیں

364. a. The adjective 'full,' approximates closely to the character of a postposition. It governs a noun in the Formative, and either precedes or follows it, more commonly the latter: e.g.

to the utmost (full (حقیل آلمقدُور or , تا مقدُور = بهر مقدُور or ) مقدُور بهر «extent) of one's power, as far as possible.

b. Its signification, when it comes after the substantive, is sometimes that of as far or much as, or sufficient for (= the Persian), see § 91, 3, Rem.): e.g.

کوس بهر 'about, or as far as a kos' (whereas would always imply 'a full kos').

that there be not as much as a kaurī کہ جُنبوالیہ اُس میں گوائِي بھر نہ ھو (not a particle) of falsehood in it.

'cloth sufficient for a cap.' توپي بهر کپّڙا

is visible.

365. a. The adjective  $\[ \]$  'like' is placed after nouns (substantives, adjectives, pronouns) to denote similitude, and inflects like the genitive case-sign to agree in gender and number with the object compared: as

'a lion-like man' ('a man bold as a lion'). شیرسا مسرّق 'a fairy-like girl.' 'some black-like (or blackish) object 'کُچھِ شَي کالِي سِي نظر پڙ تِي هَي

Rem. An attributive adjective or a demonstrative pronoun may precede the substantive, the pronoun (see next para.) being put in the Formative: e.g.

'like a raging elephant;' مست هاتهي سا 'like that merchant.'

b. When it follows a pronoun, it governs it in the Formative (cf. § 376): e.g.

'a wise man like theo.'

that you restored to life a dead man 'ک مُجبہ سے مُرْدي کو زِنْدہ کِیا like me.'

three darweshes afflicted like thee. تین درویش تُجه سے دُکھیے

o. The Genitive, inasmuch as it possesses the character of (and is by origin) an Adjective, may also be followed by L., forming with it a kind of compound adjective: e.g.

a form like a tiger's' ('a tiger-like form ').

its case is similar to that of bodily 'أَسْكَا حَالَ بِدَنِي رِيَاضَتَ كَا سَا هَي exercise.'

'feet like goats'.' پاؤں بگریوں کے سے 'feet like goats' عقّل و تعمیز هماری سی

d. The compound with ∟ may also be employed adverbially and substantively: as

'alı men are not alike.' سب آدمی ایک سے نہیں ہوتے 'alı men are not alike.' تُو بھِي مُرَّدہ سا پڙا تھا

something like a light (a light like) دُور سے ایک شُعْله سا نظر آیا appeared at a distance.'

his colour and complexion became 'اَسْكَا رَنَّكَ و روغن گُچه كَا كُچه كَا كُچه عَلَى اور كَيْنَجْلِي سِي دَّال دِي something quite different, and shed something like the slough of a snake' (lit. 'a snake-slough-like').

Rem. In place of الله, the indeclinable adjective سار محده مد occurs occasionally in the older literature: e.g. تین درویش تُجه سار دُکھیے. We may here point out that instead of بُجه سار دُکھیے, the reading of Forbes's Bāg n bahār (ed. 1856, page 68) is مار دکھیے, which is absolutely meaningless. At page 203 also of the same edition we find میرا سا دُکھیا, which is very extraordinary; for it is evident that the

speaker means to say "afflicted like me," and therefore the reading should be أحجه سا دُكِيا. Some grammarians, strange to say, receive Forbes' version as correct, and translate it "distress like mine." We need hardly point out that دُكِيا can never mean "distress," and that if the speaker had meant to imply "distress like mine," he would have said معيرا سا دُكيا.

- 366. The adverbial affix L, which is added to adjectives alone (most commonly to adjectives of quantity), and indicates a great or small degree of a quality, etc., is generally confounded with the adjective of similitude, although the two words are quite distinct both as to origin and signification (§§ 48, 49, and 50, Rem.). As both are similarly constructed, it may sometimes happen that the context alone must be looked to, to determine whether similitude or degree is implied; but this can only occur when the adjective to which L is joined is one of quality: e.g. L JUS may signify black-like, or blackish, or very black, though the last is the more common signification. When however it is connected with an adjective of quantity, L is almost invariably the adverb of degree: e.g. بہت سے گہوڙي 'a great ifor a trifling fault; ;' تپوڙي سے قَصُور پر نات 'a trivial matter.'
- 367. a. The rules for the formation of comparatives and superlatives, and the various methods of intensifying an adjective, have been laid down in §§ 47 and 48.
- b. Persian and Arabic comparatives and superlatives are of common occurrence: e.g. نامت 'the better (or best) course;' الذنيل توجّه سے 'with the least attention.' The Arabic superlative, whether constructed with a masculine or feminine noun in Urdū, always takes the masculine form.

#### II. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

- 368. The following rules relate to the Cardinal numbers alone; there being nothing special in the construction of the Ordinals beyond what has been already noticed (§ 55 et seq.).
- 369. The cardinal numbers usually precede the noun with which they are connected, and this may be put in the singular or the plural, according to the following rules:
- 1) If the noun denote money, measure or quantity, time, distance, direction, manner, or if it be one which is used as a collective numeral (like the English brace, pair, head, etc.), as زامی 'a pair,' راس 'a rein,' قطار 'a chain,' نخجیر 'a chain,' و string or file,' it is commonly put in the singular; but the verb forming its predicate is generally plural: e.g.

ن منار اشرني كي تهيلي ' one thousand ashrafī (gold-mohurs) ' a bag of four thousand rupees.'

'a bag of four thousand rupees.'

'a piece (of cloth) of twenty yards.'

'a field of ten bīghās.'

'after two or three gharīs.'

' of the course of two or three days.'

' in three weeks.'

' in three weeks.'

' for the space of three months.'

' نين صهيت تلک ' for the age of) sixty years.'

' pu to (the age of) sixty years.'

' from three sides.'

' of four two directions.'

' of four kinds.'

' of four kinds.'

نیدرد سی زنجمبر فیل 'fifteen hundred chain of elephants' (compare the English "fifteen hundred head of cattle"). نو سَو قطار بازبرداری کے 'nine hundred string (file) of burden-bearing camels.' دس راس اسب عراقی 'ten rein (i.o. ten) 'Irāk horses.'

Rem. The plural also is occasionally used when the noun denotes money: as چالیس اشرفیای 'forty ashrafīs;' and in this case, when the noun is put in the singular, the verb also is sometimes singular, the noun is put in the singular, the verb also is sometimes singular, 'there were (lit. was) two hundred and fifty ashrafī.'

2) In all other cases the plural is more commonly employed, though the noun may be put in the singular: the predicate however is usually put in the plural: as

الکه گبوڙي نميس دو چيز کميس 'a lakh of horses.'

'there are two things (lit. thing) in man.'

'with one hundred and one men.'

'two or three (a few) words.'

'four or five trays.'

'quest of four things.'

'quest of four things.'

'he wrote two lines.'

'two drops of tears fell.'

'there are thirty-nine bullets.'

370. The higher cardinal numbers, when used as collective substantives, are put in the Formative plural, and the noun denoting the things thus vaguely enumerated

follows in the plural or the singular, according to the preceding rules: e.g.

> 'hundreds of fights' (properly, 'fights in hundreds').

ن شاتیجی 'thousands of clephants.' 'curiosities (to the value) of lakhs of rupecs.'

'lakhs (of men) will die in con' لاکھوں (آڈمِی) اُسکے ظُلَم سے سرینگے sequence of his tyranny.'

371. Similarly when the cardinal numbers (generally) are connected with some definite or specific object, they are used as collective substantives, and put in the Formative plural, to indicate that all or the whole of the objects enumerated are included; while the noun denoting these objects may be put in the singular (cf. § 369, 2): e.g.

> the whole of the forty monkeys' حاليسون بندر (before mentioned).

'by all of the four mendicants.' چاروں فقیروں (or فقیر) نے

'between both of the two kings.' دونوں بادشاهوں (or بادشاد) میں

'into both my (two) eyes.' ميري دونوں آئکهوں ميں

(both of the two states are (states) کونوں حالتیں خرابی کی میں

of all the seven planets.' ساتوں کواکب میں

the whole of the eight watches' (into which a day of twenty-four hours is divided, and hence) 'the whole twenty-four hours.'

'from all the four quarters' (the cardinal points), 'from all sides.' the prayers of all the five (appointed) times.'

Rem. These numeral forms appear to perplex the grammarians in no small degree. Thus we are told by one of our most recent instructors that "in the oblique cases plural, when the numerals are specific, the numeral or the noun, or both the numeral and the noun, are put in چالیس دروازوں سے (or) چالیسوں دروازي سے (e.g.) = 'through the forty doors.' But when the sense is not specific, the noun is put in the nominative plural : (e.g.) تیں دِن کے عرصے میں means 'for the space of three days;' but تینوں دِن کے عرصے میں or تیں دِنوں کے عرصے مبن means 'for the space of the three days.'" These rules, we may observe, are essentially wrong, and betray a total misconception of the nature of the numeral in the cases compared. In the expressions چالیس دروازوں سے and حرصے the حالیس دروازی signification of which differs in no respect from that of and تین بونوں کے عرصے and سے), the numeral is used as an adjective; whereas in the expressions سے الیسوں دروازی (or دروازی) میں etc., the numeral is used as a collective substantive, signifying 'including the whole total of forty,' or 'in their whole total of forty,' etc.: thus means 'through forty,' or 'the forty چالیس دروازوں (or دروازی) سے according to the context; but سے الیسوں دروازی or) مروازی (or) میں میں مروازی signifies 'through the doors in their whole total of forty,' or 'through all the forty doors.'

## CHAPTER IX.

## PRONOUNS.

#### I. THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

372. The personal pronouns are not usually expressed when they are the subjects of personal verbs, and are even often understood in other instances. But they must be expressed where perspicuity, contrast, or emphasis is required. They generally precede the verb; but they sometimes follow (commonly in the Imperative), especially in poetry: e.g.

أسے چپوڙکر کيُوٽکر جاؤں 'how shall I leave it and go?' مَيں کُرُوں 'should I do (it)?'

'I used to call to mind the saying of the wise.' دانِشَمنَّدوں کا قول یاد کڑتا
'rare fools are they.'

373. Two or more pronouns forming the subjects of one predicate are arranged in the order of the persons (§ 290). The same order is commonly (though not invariably) observed when the pronouns are in an inflected case: e.g.

that that same may be a sign between me and thee.'

the causing (of people) to laugh at me and you.'

374. The Genitives of the pronouns are properly possessive adjectives in the Nominative (§ 154), and are inflected accordingly. They are however frequently used as objective genitives: as

'in quest of you.' تُمهارِي تلاش ميں 'in quest of him or it.' اُسْكِيَ تلاش ميں

they consider the sight of me unlucky.'

he groped with his hands to catch 'he catching of) us.'

375. a. The place of the Accusative of the personal pronouns (including the Demonstrative, when it is used for the pronoun of the *third* person) is supplied by the Dative, either of the two forms of which may be used as a Dative or an Accusative; but the form which takes the postposition  $\zeta$  is that more commonly used for the Accusative: e.g.

'our master Sindbad has called thee.' هماري آفا سِنْدْباد نِه تُجَهْكُو بُلايا هَي 'she moved the cloth from (her) face کُپُّوّا مُنْه سِے سُرْکاکر مُجنِکُو دیکھا and looked at me.'

he went there with you' ('brought you there').

they ate them up. أنكو كها كنه

this fakīr became paralyzed on 'فقير أَسْكو ديكَتِكْر سُن خُورًا seeing her.'

'having recognized thee.'

'in order that they might see me.'

'deeming me dead.' مُجهد مُوا شُوًا جانّكر

how shall I leave it and go?' (lit. 'go, having left it').

'on the instant of secing them.' أنهيس ديكيَّت هِي

b. If the Dative and the Accusative of a pronoun occur in the same sentence, the Accusative takes the postposition  $\zeta$ , and the Dative the second form: as

c. Similarly the second form of the Dative is used for the Dative or Accusative of the pronoun if, in the same sentence, the direct or indirect object of the verb is a noun constructed with : e.g.

376. a. When a personal pronoun in any case except the Nominative and Vocative is connected with an attributive adjective, it precedes the same in the Formative, and the case-sign is added to the adjective: e.g.

'the true story of ruined me.' مُجهِ خانه خراب کِي حقِيقت 'to lowly me.' مُجه عاجز کو

b. Excepting the Agent case and the Genitive, as well as the Nominative, the same construction obtains when the emphatic particle عبي (plural هي or جين) is added to the pronouns, that of the third person included: e.g.

المجيبي كو دِيا 'I gave it to you' (and not to any one else). 'جبي كو دِيا 'let him ask me' (properly, 'let him ask it from me'). 'it is his work alone.'

But مَيں نے هِي یِه. کام نیس کِیا 'I alone did not do this.'
"my course is the correct one.' میرا هِي طریقہ تَّجِیکُ دَي
'this property is yours.'

- c. The Adjective of Similitude L. (as has been shown in § 365) always follows the personal pronouns, and governs them in the Formative. It rarely occurs however in connection with the pronoun of the third person. In the pronominal adjectives أيساً, أيساً, the pronoun is demonstrative, not personal, the signification being not like him, or it, but like this, or that, such (cf. § 156 and Rem.).
- d. The postposition پاس, which governs both the Formative and the Genitive of substantives (§ 239), may likewise govern the Formative or the Genitive of pronouns: e.g. اُس پاس 'near me,' أَس پاس 'near him.' In both cases however the Genitive is the more common construction.

Rem. The plural pronoun is is often used for the singular persons of rank or position when addressing inferiors; and the plural is commonly employed in place of the singular is. These forms being thus used in the singular, their place as plurals is often supplied by the expressions خو نوست 'we people,' we; 'you people,' you.' The use of خو 'thou,' though common among the vulgar, is restricted by the educated to the purpose of indicating contempt, affection (chiefly in addressing children, or old and trusty servants), or reverence (whence its employment in addresses to the Deity). The educated, when conversing with equals, generally use the singular pronouns and if for 'I' and 'you' ('thou'); but we way be used instead of if the two persons are intimate friends. The respectful forms for the third person singular in any of the inflected cases except the Agent, are it is in the case of 'his order;' but in the case of

the Agent the form is أنهون نه كها (e.g. أنهون نه أنهون أله said'), and not أنهون نه أنهون نه أنهون أله this being now the ordinary form of the singular Agent (ef. §§ 140, 141).

### II. THE DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

377. The Demonstrative pronouns are local adjectives; but, by omitting the object defined, they may be used as nouns: as يبه سُنكر 'what are these?' يبه سُنكر 'hearing this.'

378. There is no personal pronoun of the third person in Hindūstānī: its place is generally supplied by the remote demonstrative if that, he, she, it. But if it be desired to distinguish between a near and a remote object, the pronoun if this is used to indicate the nearer object. When the demonstratives are used as personal pronouns, the case-signs are added immediately to them; but when they are employed adjectively, defining a noun in an inflected case, they are put in the Formative, but the postposition of the case is added to the substantive (cf. § 141): e.g.

بہہ آذمی کیا کہتا کی 'what does this man say?' نہہ آذمی کیا کہتا کی 'that person was seated near me.' وہ شخص میری پاس بَیتھا تپا 'refrain from this business.' اِس کام سے بازآ 'near that cave.' اُس غار کے پاس 'he will see me.' وُه مُجھے دیکھیگا 'there is no believing him (this man near).' اِسْکا کُچنے اِعْتِبار بہیں لاؤ

Rem. a. The forms من and s are both singular and plural in Urdū (§ 141, Rem. c.): e.g. مُنسَت هَين 'they say.'

Rem. b. The rules laid down in §§ 373-376, apply also to the pronoun of the third person.

this same is written in our destiny هماري طالِع ميں يہي لِکيا هَي كِـ (namely) that we shall break) روز لگڙياں توڙيں (gather) sticks every day.'

in this same (afore-mentioned) ایسی طرح انشرفیاں کے اللہ سے، manner, through greed of ashrafts.

every year in these same days.' هر سال اِنتِين دِنوں ميں 'the same (afore-mentioned) woman 'وُهِي صَورت كَمَّنَ لِكِي began to say.'

the servants of the same (aforementioned) gentleman.'

'along with all those same (aforementioned) merchants.'

these forms in the plural is termed "ungrammatical" by a recent writer on Urdū grammar. The same thoughtless remark was made some years ago in one of the notes to an English translation of a well-known Urdū work, and happening to fall under the eye of a native scholar in India, called forth the following: "We shall ere long, I suppose, have English gentlemen coming out to India to teach us how to speak and write our own tongue correctly and idiomatically." It may perhaps induce these gentlemen to change their opinion on this subject if they learn that the original plural form of also was (as it is now in Marathī and Sindhī), and that this ultimately gave place to 3, in Urdī, is giving place to 3.

380. a. In the Accusative, the Demonstratives, when used as adjectives or substantives defining a thing, may take the Nominative forms (i,j), if there be no stress laid on them, or the object defined by them has not been previously mentioned; but these forms can never occur when the Demonstratives are used as personal pronouns: e.g.

' \*where shall I take this bundle ' یہ گُنَّهْرِي کہاں پہُنچاؤں ' for how many days shall I subsist ' وَهُ مَالَ كُلِّى دِن كَهَاوُنْكَا ' on that money '

'having heard this.' یہ سُنگر 'I will give that (not it) to thee.'

b. But if the Demonstratives refer to an animate object, or to a thing which it is desired to bring conspicuously forward (ef. § 346, 2, 3), they take the inflected form (§ 378), and the postposition  $\geq$  is added to the noun defined by them: e.g.

'' why are you beating this boy ' اِس لَرِّکَ کُو کُبُوں مارَّتے هو ' take this dog away.' اِس کُتّے کو لے جاؤ 'I tore that book.'

c. The use of one or other of the two forms of the Dative-Accusative (viz. سَكُو or اُسَكُو or اُسُكُو or اُسُكُو of the personal pronouns has been explained in § 375.

Rem. If the Demonstrative defines a noun followed by the adjective of similitude لم , it takes the inflected form (§ 365): as أس سُوداگر سا like that merchant.'

381. The Demonstratives are occasionally used in the sense of the pronominal adjectives رَيسا ,اَيسا, derived from them. In such cases an explanatory or descriptive

sentence introduced by the explicatory particle & 'that.' generally follows: as

such was the state of brilliance that ' روشني كا يبه عالم تها كه شب قدر the Night of Power had (would have had) no power (consideration) there.'

### III. THE RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

382. There are in Urdū two sorts of relative sentences; namely 1) such as are introduced by the Relative pronoun بخ 'who, which, what,' etc.; and 2) such as are annexed to an immediately preceding definite or indefinite noun without the aid of a Relative pronoun. A sentence of the former kind is called جَمْلُ مَرْضُول a conjunctive sentence; of the latter kind بَعْتُ مَ مُرَّفُولًا مُعْتَ مُ مُعْلِدُ مُعْلِدُ مُعْلِدُ عُلِيْ مُعْلِدُ عُلِيْ مُعْلِدُ عُلِيْ مُعْلِدُ عُلِيْ مُعْلِدُ عُلِيْ مُعْلِدُ مُعْلِدُ فَعْلِيْ مُعْلِدُ وَعُلِيْ مُعْلِدُ مُعْلِدُ مُعْلِدُ عُلِيْ مُعْلِدُ وَعُلِيْ مُعْلِدُ مُعْلِدُ عُلِيْكُ مُعْلِدُ وَعُلِيْكُ مُعْلِدُ عُلِيْكُ مُعْلِدُ عُلِيْكُ مُعْلِدُ عُلِيْكُ مُعْلِدُ عُلِيْكُ مُعْلِدُ عُلِيْكُ مُعْلِدُ وَعُلِيْكُ مُعْلِدُ عُلِيْكُ عُلِيْكُ مُعْلِدُ عُلِيْكُ عُلِيْكُ مُعْلِدُ عُلِيْكُ عُلِيْكُ مُعْلِدُ عُلِيْكُ مُعْلِدُ عُلِيْكُ مُعْلِدُ عُلِيْكُ عُلِيْكُ عُلِيْكُ مُعْلِيْكُ عُلِيْكُ عُلِيْكُ

# 1) THE CONJUNCTIVE SENTENCE.

- 383. The Relative pronoun جو is used both substantively and adjectively: it may moreover be definite or indefinite; as جو آيا 'he who came,' or 'whoever came.'
- 384. a. When the Relative is used as an indefinite substantive, its clause is generally followed by one introduced by the correlative or determinative pronoun or s, (more commonly the latter, which is often more emphatic than , which takes up the Relative, the two pronouns agreeing in gender and number, but each standing in the case

determined by its relation to its own clause. The correlative however is often omitted: e.g.

happen what may' (lit. 'whatever shall happen, that (or it) shall happen.'

do that wherein your pleasure 'do that wherein your pleasure consists' ('do whateveryou please').

those who were smart and active 'e جُسْت وچالاك تهدور علاجات بهدور و جالدی quickly jumped into the boats and went on board (the ship).'

whoever came went away laden ' جو آیا (وُہ sc.) مالا مال ہوکرگیا (with treesure).'

Rem. Compare with the Urdū so or جو عرب , the Sanskrit यद् yad— तद tad, and the Latin qui-is, or īdem.

b. The Relative (and, as the case may be, the correlative) may be repeated for the sake of emphasis (تاکِید, see Rem.  $\S 276$ ): e.g.

whatever articles I considered ne 'جرو جو چینزیں مُناسِب آور 'whatever articles I considered ne 'فائدہ منّد سمجھیں خریدیں دو دو دو اللہ منّد سمجھیں خریدیں تا purchased.'

c. The indefinite pronouns جو گیء 'whoever,' are also constructed like the Relative; and the place of the following determinative pronoun may be supplied by one of the pronominal adjectives وَيُسا ,اَيسا . وَيُسا ,اَيسا .

to whomsoever God has given a جس کِسِي کو اللّه نے بہُت سِي (to whomsoever God has given a نعمتیں عطا کِي هَيْن اُسْکو لائِنی him to render thanks.'

whatever they suck from the petais اُن بَهُولوں کِي بِدِّمُوں سے جو گھن چاڭتى ھَيْن وُد لَعابدار شِيره هوكر نِكلْتا هَي

of those flowers is reproduced in the form of a viscous and sweet substance (called honey).

whatever (all that) he had described 'جو کُچہ اُسْکا فاؤدہ بیاں کِیا تہا ويساهي ديكها

as its beneficial effects, exactly such I found (it to be).'

385. But if the relative clause is used adjectively (as the عله) to describe or define a preceding substantive, the construction is similar to that of English: the Relative agrees with its antecedent in gender, number, and person, the concord in gender (since the pronoun has no distinct forms for masc. and fem.) being indicated by the predicate of the relative clause. The case of the Relative is determined by its relation to its own clause: e.g.

a sage, who was skilled in decipher ایک حکیم جو پُرانے خط کے برّمنے میں ہوشیا، تھا ing old characters (or writings).'

this is an outrage for which no يبه ايك الدهير هَي جسَّكا كُجب تدارُک نہ هوتا punishment is inflicted.'

this mansion is Sindbād's, who بيه دكولت خانه سِنْدُباد كا كمي جسّن جہاں کے تمام دریاؤں کا سفر کِیا has made the voyage of all the seas in the world.'

there is (they have) a king among ' أَنْمَين ايكُ بِادَشَاه هوتا هي جسَّكو یعسوب کہتے کی them, whom they call Ya'sūb.'

386. a. The antecedent, especially if it be an indefinite substantive, is often attracted (in the same case as the Relative adjective) into the relative clause, and the construction is then the same as that explained in § 384: e.g.

أُنْكِي سُلطنت هميش مُتزلزل

جو لوگ حاضِر تھے اُن میں سے كوئِي أس خطكو نه بڙهه سكَّتا تها یر اِعْتِماد تھا اُنْکے ساتھ ایک اتھیے جہاز ہر سوار ھُوا

'no benefit—naught but harm (lit. no گیا کھی اُس سے بجُز ضرر کے اور کیے۔ فائدہ حاصل نہ ہوگا

نست شکایت تا شیه

when (lit. at which time) it be- جس وقت معَلُوم هو كِ فَال شَخْص چُغُل خور هَي أُسِي وَقَت أُسْكِي دفعیے کی تذبیر کر*ی* 

bearer, let him immediately (lit. at that very time) take steps to remove him (from his place).' b. If the Relative be connected with a substantive

denoting place, direction, etc., one of the corresponding pronominal adverbs (§ 224) will take the place of the determinative pronoun: as

he went in the same direction from ' جس طرّف سے آیا اُدھر ھی کو چلا which he came.'

(the king who (= whatever king) جو پاڏشاه أن پر عمل نہ کري does not act upon them, his dominion will ever remain in a tottering condition.'

> none of the people present could read that character.'

'I embarked in a good ship along ' جن تاجروں کی دیانت أور امانت with some (those) merchants in whose honesty and integrity I had confidence.'

> benefit save harm) will be received from the person in whose bosom rancour has established itself.'

listen to no complaint against the 'جس نَوكر كو مُقرّب بنائِيت أَسَّكي servant whom you make a favourite (or confidant).'

comes known (to the king) that

such and such a person is a tale-

'a water-pot filled with gold mohurs جس درخت کے نِیچے ہُو کھڑا ھی is buried here under the tree

موا گؤا دی

where you are standing.'

387. If emphasis is laid on the Demonstrative clause, it generally precedes the Relative: as

and then he kills the bee that brings ' پنجر أس مكنبي كو مار ڈالتا جو بدبو 'the offensive smell with it.'

نے فِکْرِی میں وُهِی لُوگ زِنْدگِی 'those people alone pass their lives 'those people alone pass their lives in unconcern who are foolish and thoughtless.'

and I explained in their presence أورؤه تذبير جس سے مَس يہاں تک the expedient by (means of) which لگے سامیے نے بیاں کیا I got there (lit. here).

Rem. In sentences like the above the native grammarians regard the position of the relative clause as in no wise different from what it is in the sentences noticed under § 386. For example: analyzing the two sentences جو کتاب ک تُم نے لِي تَجِي, etc., and السم مَوصُول, they say that, in the first, the conjunctive noun (اِسم مَوصُول), and the conjunctive clause (اِسم مَوصُول, and the second, the conjunctive noun is رُهُ کِتاب, and the sila, جو کتاب عبی جو تُم نے لِي تَجِي .

388. a. The Relative may be used both as subject and object in one and the same sentence, which then becomes doubly correlative. This construction is always employed in such sentences as in English contain both an indefinite Relative and an indefinite Pronoun. For

example, "whatever came into the mind of any one," would in Urdū be expressed thus: "whatsoever came into the mind of whomsoever." In such cases the Correlative pronouns are, one or both, frequently omitted in Urdū: e.g.

whatsoever fell into any one's (lit. خوجس کے هاتھ پڑا الگ کیا whomsoever's) hands, he carried off.'

whatsoever form He considered fit جسکے واسطے جو صُورت مُناسِب

for any one soever, He bestowed (it).'

for any one soever, He bestowed (it).'

whatsoever was proper for any one

soever has been bestowed.'

b. A pronominal adverb derived from the Relative pronoun may even take the place of one of the Relatives: e.g.

and whatsoever they find any أور جہاں سے جو گُچہ پاتے كَيں لے where they bring thence' (lit. 'and whencesoever whatsoever they find they bring').

'as any one does so will he receive.' جو جَيسا کريگا وَيسا پاويگا

Rem. a. This construction, it may be observed, is derived from the Sanskrit: e.g. yad rochate yasmai, 'whatsoever is pleasing to whomsoever,' or 'whatever pleases any one;' and, as might be expected, it is found in the Persian also: e.g. نبرک هرچ سزاوار بُود بخشید ند 'whatsoever was suitable to any one has been bestowed.'

The Relative is never employed in connection with the Indefinite pronouns, except to form the compound indefinite pronouns جو کوئی (Formative جسکی), and جو کچئی If in the first of the above examples we were to substitute کسی کے for پسکی مسکل would no longer be a Relative pronoun, but a conjunction, and the meaning of

the sentence would be "if it fell into the hands of any one, etc." The Relative pronoun however partakes considerably of the character of the Indefinite pronoun, and frequently implies a condition also, thus taking the signification of the conjunction عبر "if;' as بحس صُورت ميں) وُه لُوگ خائِن دُوئے – اَور بادشاه کو اُنکے ) 'if in any case (lit. in the case in which) they turned traitors, and the king had confidence in their statements, then many innocent people would (lit. will) lose their lives.'

389. The relative adjectives and adverbs also are used correlatively, in the manner of the relative pronoun: e.g.

'as he (or I) did, so he (or I) received.' أَوْ يَسَا يَايَا ضَارِ 'where the rose (is) there (also is) the thorn.'

take as much as is necessary (as you want).'

"while there is life there is hope." جب تلک سائس تب تلک آس

# 2) THE QUALIFICATIVE SENTENCE.

390. The qualificative or descriptive sentence is annexed to an immediately preceding definite or indefinite noun which it qualifies or describes. It is always introduced by the particle  $\zeta$  'that,' which is simply an explicatory particle (called Sie Land Sie Lan

clause following  $\leq$  contains a pronoun (either expressed or understood, or implied in the verb) which refers to the qualified noun, and connects it with the qualificative clause. This pronoun (the case of which is altogether independent of that of the antecedent) supplies the syntactical place of our relative pronoun. The particle  $\leq$  it should be observed is sometimes omitted and not generally translated: e.g.

the wazīr, who (lit. he) was a wise فرزير كِ (وُه 80) مرك دانا تها ' the wazīr, who (الله عند الله عن

and a great many men, who (lit.) أُوربهُ ت سے آدَمِي كِـ (وي. se.) أُسْكِي they) were on its back.'

to the end that I might meet with کے کِسی آیسے شخص سے مُلاقات some such person with whom (lit. جاؤں that with him) I might return to my native land.'

(ه. هَي (کِ ۵۰۰) ايک دُوکان هَي (کِ ۵۰۰) is) a shop wherein (lit. such that in it) two cages were (lit. are) hanging.

'that slave who had been fostered.' وُه غُلام کِ حِس نِه پُرْورِش پائِي تَهِي 'that slave who had been fostered.' اِتَنا مال کِ حِسْکا حِساب نہیں no calculation.'

Rom. The construction with  $\leq$  is borrowed from the Persian, and the explanation here given of its use is taken from the Kawā'idĕ Urdū Part IV. Ki is neither itself a relative pronoun, nor does it "at the beginning of a sentence with a personal pronoun coming in sub-

sequently represent the Relative;" but it is in all cases a simple particle heading a descriptive or defining clause, which clause, as we have observed above, contains a pronoun that supplies the syntactical place of our relative pronoun. We subjoin the analysis of a sentence by a native grammarian in corroboration of this view. وَوَ كُتَابِ كُرُ بَيْ فِي مِنْ بِيْنِ بِيْنِ بِيْنِ بِيْنِ بِيْنِ بِيْنِ فِي هِي بِيْنِ بِيْنِ بِيْنِ بِيْنِ بِيْنِ فِي هِي أَنْ أَنْ اللهُ ا

#### IV. THE INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

' who are you?'
' who said such a thing?'
' who said such a thing?'
' what merchant's packages are those?'
' what is your name?'
' what does he say?'
' what fault have 1 committed?'

392. The pronouns may be repeated for emphasis (تاكِيد, see § 276, Rem.), with a distributive force, or to imply a great number or variety: e.g.

'in what various ways?' کِس کِس طرح 'in what various ways?' تُجه میں بہُت عَیب هَیں کِس دانا۔ 'you have many faults, which particular ones shall I enumerate?' کیس کو گِنُوں 'what several works did they all do?'

393. When the question refers to one of two or more, the particle ارسي is generally added to the interrogative: as

in which particular book?' (out of two or more). کُونْسي کِتاب میں

394. The Interrogative like the Relative (§ 388), may be used as both subject and object in the same sentence: e.g.

let me see in what rank each of you ویکہوں گوں کِس مرتبے میں هَي stands' (lit. 'who stands in what rank ?')

395. The Dative form کاھے کو أنگے پاس جاتے is used only with the signification of why? as کاھے کو اُنگے پاس جاتے 'why do they go near them?' But at the present period the phrase کِس واسطے or لِیئے 'for what purpose?' 'why?' is more common: e.g. کیس واسطے 'why are you sitting here?' تُم سب اِس وَیرانے میں کیُوں آئے ھو'? why have you all come to this desolate place?'

396. a. The Interrogative كي corresponds in nearly all its uses to the English 'what?' It is employed, for example, to express:

1) Indifference to or the ability to dispense with a thing, or to imply the answer 'no,' 'none whatever:' as

what shall I do with Paradise (what ' مُجِهِ بِن بِهِشَت پِيارِي مَسِ لِيكِ أَنْكَا is Paradise to me) without thee, darling?'

" what shame is there in eating?' کہانے میں شرّم کیا کمی ('there is no shame,' etc.)

Rem. a. Compare also the use of كيا in the following: آذَمِي كيا ديو 'a man! nay, he was a demon' (or 'he was no man, he was a demon'); هماري اخْلاقِي مُباحثوں پر غَير كا تو كيا ذِكْر هَي خُود هماري هم وطن ماري هم وطن 'our very countrymen themselves, not to speak of others, pay no attention to our moral discussions; آزَمائي هُوئي كو پير 'to what purpose should I again test that which (or him who) has been tested?'

Rem. b. The interrogative adverbs کبال 'when?' کہاں 'when?' دود., are also often used to imply the answer 'no,' 'never:' e.g. خُوشاء دولت کی عالمی طبیعت اصّل دَولت کِی عالمی طبیعت اصّل دَولت کِی الله when does a noble-minded man flatter the rich?' i.e. 'a noble-minded man never flatters,' etc.

2) Indignation, or rebuke; as

('don't do that!') تُم كيا كرّتے هو

3) Surprise or wonder: as

' what a very good man he is!' كيا هِي نيك مرَّد هَي

b. It may also be used like the English 'how' to denote extent or degree, etc.: as

'how fine or excellent!'

if one forces its way into his clothes ' اگر کوئی اُسکے کپّڑوں میں گُھس کر and bites him, how restless he کاتے تو کیا ( = گیسا) بے قرلر becomes.

397. کیا انke the English what—what, and whether—or, are used correlatively to connect sentences: e.g.

what night and what day?' or 'whether in the night or in the day.'

" whether in joy or sorrow ' كيا خُوشِي أور كيا تشويش ميں

398. The Interrogatives are used in *indirect* as well as direct questions: in such cases the interrogative clause generally stands as *object* to a preceding negative verb, or an interrogative sentence that is equivalent to a negative: *e.g.* 

what know I (= I don't know) who ' کیا جائوں کِہ وُد کوں (شنخص ،80) کمي (what person) he is?'

he did not know who lived (lit. أَسْكُو مِعْلُوم بِهِ تَهَا كِ أَسَّ مِكَانَ مِينَ أُور وَلَا عَالِيشَانَ lives) in that house, and whose that grand mansion was (lit. is).

Rem. a. In such sentences the verb of the governing clause must always be either directly or indirectly negative, otherwise the interrogative cannot be employed; a sentence like مَسِن جَانْتا هُوں كِ وُه كُوں هَي is unidiomatic and wrong. It betrays a misconception of Urdū idiom to say of sentences like those given above that "the Interrogative is used instead of the Relative."

Rem. b. The interrogative particles آيا 'is it?' 'whether?' and کيُونَّک 'how?' are also used in interrogative sentences, the latter commonly:

وه. آیا یہ حالت فاعِل کِی بیان کرتا کھی یا مغْعُول کِی وہ. 'does this indicate the state of the agent or of the object?' تُم یہاں کیُونّکر آئے ''how did you come here?'

### V. THE INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

399. The indefinite pronouns کوئی some, any, a, a certain, etc., and خونه some, a few, a little, etc., when used substantively, apply, the former to living beings, the latter to things only; but as adjectives either may be connected with any noun, whether this denote a person or a thing. The pronoun کوئی to a great extent supplies the place of the English indefinite article: it is declined in the singular only, and is not commonly connected with a plural noun (see Rem. below), never perhaps with a plural of persons:

if a confidential servant commit 'اگرکوئي مُقرّب خِيانت کري يا آور treachery or be guilty of any other offence.'

when a bee of another hive wishes ' جب کوئی مکمی دُوسَری چبتے نا چاهّتی هی to come.'

in a certain region of Hindustan ' ہِنْدُوستان کے کِسِي خِطّے میں ایک there was a king.'

'bring some water' کُچه پانِی لاؤ

'I have some doubt respecting this.' مُجِهِكُو إِلَّى مِين كُجِهِ شَكَ هَي

<sup>1</sup> A recent writer on Urdu grammar terms the use of kuchh with a plural noun "uncommon" and "inelegant." We can confidently affirm that it is commonly so used by the best native writers, and they are certainly the best judges of the "elegance" of the construction. The same writer doubts the use of kuchh in application to persons: that it is so used will be seen from the seventh and eleventh of the above examples.

this is somewhat better than that. یہہ اُس سے کُچھ (= کِسِي قدر) بہتر هَي بہتر هَي ' he (this man) too is something of a

perhaps some improper words شاید کُچه نامُناسِب باتیں میرِی (scaped my lips (lit. tongue).'

and having made some screens, I أور كُچه تلقّيان بناكر درخت كي tied (them) upon the tree.'

they found some of the young one's 'جُوں کی کُچھ ھُڈیاں در تخت کے bones under the tree, and some in نیچنے آور کُچھ گِدھ کے گُہُنَّدُمْلے 
the vulture's hollow.'

many men who were on its back, بہُت سے آدمی کے اُسکی پُشْت some in boats and some by swimیر تھے کُچہ پنسوؤیوں پر آور کُچہ
ming, came on board the ship.'

Rem. a. The inflected form کمنو of the interrogative کوئی, though of frequent occurrence in the older literature, is now seldom used.1

Rem. b. کوئی ی uninflected is sometimes used in connection with a plural substantive denoting a thing; as کوئی در ن غریب خانب میں 'grace for a few days this humble dwelling;' but this construction is not common, خوث or کوئی being more generally used in place of کوئی 'a few,' and in the sense of some or certain, the pronominal adjective بعض or بعض being usually employed with a plural substantive: e.g.

'certain historians have written.' بغض مُؤرِّخِين نے لِکھا ھَي

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Similarly of the two forms کدهو ,کدهو , and کدهو , the latter are now commonly used instead of the former.

'I would question your Highness 'عضي بعضي باتيس حُضُور ميس about certain matters.'

Rem. e. کوئی 'several,' is not the plural of کوئی, as some grammarians suppose, but a distinct pronominal adjective, derived (like کي 'how many?') from the Sanskrit कति kati.

- Rem. d. The particle س may be added to the indefinite pronouns to intensify the signification: as کوئی سا any one whatever.'
- 400. In connection with a following negative the indefinite pronouns are equivalent to our 'no,' 'no one,' 'none,' 'none at all:' e.g.

no (not a) rebel remained in the ' مُكَاكَ ميں كورِئي سرْكش نرها kingdom.'

and it opened with no other key.' أُورِكِسِي أُورِ كُنْجِي سے نہ كَهُـٰلا 'no benefit will be derived.'

no eatables and drinkables are 'کُچھ کھانے پینے کِی حِیزیں اِس ''obtainable in these parts.'

Rem. کُچه in combination with other pronouns and pronominal adjectives has other significations, corresponding to our 'all,' 'ever so much,' etc.: eg. اَور مَسِ اُنَّكِ هَا تَبُول سِے بِهِ كُچه دُكه ديكهُول 'while I experience all this pain at their hands;' اگر كوئي ايك دانه بوتا هي تواس 'if one sows a single seed, what an immense quantity springs from it!'

401. کوئي – کوئي, and کچه منظی, are equivalent to our one—another; e.g.

one says one thing, another (says) کوئِي کُچھ، کہتا ھي کوئِي کُچھھ، another.'

one commits a fault, another receives 'گناه کوئي کري سزا کوئي پاوي the punishment.'

one holds to a religion as an heir
loom from his ancestors, another

age has made choice of an unsound

(lit. shaky) faith for the sake of

worldly wealth and honour.

Rem. The indefinite pronominal adjectives (e.g. فَالنَّ مَ فَلانَ , فَلْلَ وَاللهُ وَاللّهُ وَلّمُ وَاللّهُ وَاللّه

### VI. THE REFLEXIVE PRONOUN,

and plural (§ 150), is employed as an emphatic appositive (تاكيد, see *Rem.* § 276) to a noun or personal pronoun (expressed or understood) which forms the subject of a sentence: as

'Mohan himself will come.' موهن آپ آئیگا 'I myself went there.'

used to live in ease and enjoyment.' وعِشْرت میں بسر کر تے used to live in ease and enjoyment.' أور نه (وُه .se) آپ کِسِي کے پاس one.'

Rem. The emphatic هِي may be added to وَد آپ هِي آيا : e.g. آپ he himself came;' and instead of بُود often

occurs: as کُسِي کے واسطے گوا ست کھود کِ (تُو so.) مُخود گریگا dig not a pit for any one, for you yourself will fall.'

103. آپ may also be added emphatically to its own inflected forms, and the word اپنے may even be omitted, as the personal pronoun in the Nominative is (§ 402): e.g.

in that case he should blame 'نواپئنے آپ کو ملامت کڑني himself.'

'you consider yourself faultless.' آپ کو ہے عَیب جانّتا ھی

'a darwesh, holding himself aloof ایک درویش (اپنے 80) آپ کوڈنیا from the throng of the world.'

Rem. b. آپ is perhaps never used alone in the sense of 'self,' its original signification. When used without obvious reference to a distinct subject, it commonly relates to an unexpressed pronoun of the first person, or to an indefinite noun understood, and must therefore be rendered myself, or himself: e.g. آپ نوسند نه کري (se. پر پسند نه کري (se. آپ شخص) 'a thing which (any one) dislikes (done) to himself.'

404. a. The Genitive of آپ , the Reflexive Pronominal Adjective ايّنا, is always used in place of the Possessive

Adjectives تيرا my, inty, etc., when these occur (in connection with a noun in the Accusative or in an oblique case) in the same sentence with the subject to which they refer: e.g.

Sindbad began to relate the story of ' سِنْدُباك نے اَپْنے دُوسْرِي سفر كا حال his second voyage.'

'I came out from my hiding-place.' مَیں اَپْنے چِعِبِّنے کِي جگہہ سے باهِر نِگلا

'and we sold our goods here and there.' آور ہم نے اپّنا اسّباب جا بیجا 'do you now go home.' اِس وقّت تُم اپّنے گھر جاؤ 'they took me along with them.'

b. But if the possessive adjectives occur in a sentence which has a distinct subject, or if they stand in the Nominative, the regular forms تيرا, بيرا, etc., are used: e.g.

'they beat me and my son.' مُجِهِد اور ميري بيت كو مارا 'my mind also coveted.'

Rem. a. اپنیا (for my, or our) is sometimes found in connection with a substantive which is the subject of the proposition, but this is not to be imitated: e.g. اپنی و زاج بهک گیا (better اپنیا (میری 'my mind also was seduced; نوکرو رفیقوں نے جب یہ غفّلت دیکھی 'when my servants and my associates perceived this neglect; اپنیا (better پاکستان و فرایات هاته میں هي 'our (one's) honour is in our own keeping (lit. hands).'

Rem. b. اپنا (as also میرا) is often omitted when no ambiguity can arise therefrom: e.g. (میرا) 'I restrained (my) 'I restrained (my) tongue from lying;' غیبت سُننے میں جومزا آتا تھا اُسکودِل سے بھُلادِیا 'I effaced from (my) mind (lit. heart) the pleasure I used to derive from listening to slander.'

405. اپنا is also used substantively to signify my, thy, etc., property, or kindred: as

what has possessed thee, that thou ' تُجهه کو کیا هُوا کِه دُوسُرا کا مال اپْنا (callest another's property thine?

they perceive no difference between ' اپنے آور بیگانے میں کی فرق their kindred and strangers.'

'he came to his own' اپنوں کے پاس آیا

406. The Ablative آپ سے آپ, or emphatically آپ سے آپ, is commonly employed as an adverb: e.g.

he came here himself, or of his 'وَد آپ سے آپ یہاں آیا own accord.'

'it grows spontaneously:' وُه آپ سے آپ اُگنا هَي

Rem. In place of پ سے آپ the Persian phrase غُوں به خُوں به خُوں به خُود اللہ is often used: as

'my mind of itself got so out of tone' طبیعت خُود به خُود اَیسِي بے (listless, lit. insipid).

### CHAPTER X.

THE VERB.

# 6) VERBAL NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

### 1. THE INFINITIVE.

407. The Infinitive is properly a Gerund or verbal noun, and as such can form the subject or object of a verb, or stand in any case (except the Vocative), like any other substantive. It differs however from an ordinary substantive, 1) in being used in the singular number only; and 2) in taking an objective complement after it, if it be derived from an active-transitive verb: e.g.

> to lie (or lying 1) is wrong. عَبُولِيُّهِ بُولُنا بُرا هَي 'the habit of jesting' ٹیقھا کڑنے کی عادت

when a bee of another hive wishes ' جب کوئي مکبي دُوسري چهتے to come.' کِي آنا چَاهْتِي هَي to come.' سَرْزِيش كَرْنِي سَا غُصَّه پَيداهوتا هَي anger arises from reproaching

( = reproach).'

" what shame is there in eating?' کھانے میں شرم کیا کھی

408. a. If only the objective complement of the infinitive (and not likewise the subject) be expressed, it may

<sup>1</sup> The English scholar will not require to be told that lying and to lie are both infinitive forms.

be put in the Genitive, or either of the two forms of the Accusative: e.g.

they think nothing of uttering such ' آیسِي بات کے زبان سے نِکاٽنے میں ' ''کو گُچھ خیال نہیں آتا words.'

ن أل آلات كا بنانا نِهايت هِي 'to make (or, the making of) all the implements (required) is highly inconceivable.'

they consider the seeing (= sight) ميرا ديكهنا متحُوس جائت هيں of me unlucky.'

'to leave his mark in the world.' خلّق میں اپّنِي نِشانِي چپوڙنا to sacrifice (one's) freedom cannot ' آزادِي کو کبو دینا کِسِي حال مِیں

in any case be deserving of com-ستعریف کے قابِل نہیں ہوسکتا mendation.

b. But if the subject be likewise expressed, this is usually put in the Genitive, and the objective complement in the Accusative: e.g.

'Art's producing a resemblance to طبیعت کے ساتھہ صناعت کا تشبّه Nature.'

409. If the Genitive of the Gerund be subjective, or if it be governed by one of the postpositions وانتطى , النتاء , etc., it may generally be rendered by the English gerund with to: e.g.

the power to tell would fail me, and نه مُجه میں قُدْرت کہنے کِي اَور the patience to listen (would fail) نه تُجه میں طاقت سُنْنے کِي thee' (lit. 'the ability to tell will

not be in me, nor the power to listen in thee').

to break (lit. for the purpose of کُرِّیاں توزَّنے کے واسطے breaking) sticks.'

410. The Genitive of the Infinitive is commonly used in connection with the verbal negative نبحن (§ 148, Rem.) to express a strong negative Future: e.g.

411. The Dative of the Gerund occurs after intransitive verbs, and such transitive verbs as govern both a dative and an accusative, and commonly expresses *purpose*; it may therefore be generally rendered in English by the gerund with to: e.g.

give a house near yourself for me to اپنے نزّدِیک میری اُ ترنے کو مکاں stay in (lit. alight).'

Rem. The postposition کو is often omitted: as کو is often omitted: as وي ديکھنے (کو) گئے they went to see; کئے کہ آئے کہ نے نامیان 'they went to examine thee.'

412. The Dative of the Gerund in connection with the verbs عنا and عنا expresses the *intention to perform* an act: e.g.

<sup>1 &</sup>quot;It is difficult to distinguish this (i.e. the dative of the verbal noun)," a recent writer on Urdū Grammar observes, "from the infinitive; in fact the dative form may always be rendered by an infinitive." On this it is necessary to remark that the dative of the gerund is not the infinitive, although 'to' precedes it. In the expression "he liked to learn," to learn is the infinitive, and the object of the verb liked; but in "he came to learn," to learn is the gerund in the dative, and expresses the purpose—"he came for learning."

a ship appeared far off coming (towards me).' أسي وقّعت كِد مَيس دَرْيا ميس going to cast myself into the sea,

413. The Infinitive in combination with the verb is used to indicate the contemporaneousness of an action with another expressed by a finite verb in a following clause: e.g.

the young man had but just reached جوان کا درّوازي پرآنا تهاکِ وونّبيس the door when at the same moment صاحِبِ خانه بهِي پهُنچا ...
the master of the house arrived.

and they had scarcely put their feet ' أور پانُو كُوڙِي پردهرنا تها كِه گِر پڙي on the rubbish when down they fell (into the pit).'

414. The Infinitive is often used in the sense of the Imperative, in both affirmative and negative sentences, but generally with more force than the ordinary Imperative. The negative particles employed in this construction are 3 and 5, the latter being prohibitive: e.g.

'come to my place.' میري هاں آنا 'whatever they say, consider it true.' جویے کہیں اُسکو سے جائنا 'never think of this!' زِنْهار یہ خیال نہ کزنا 'don't you go home to-day.'

and transitive, but also of intransitive verbs, is frequently used as a Gerundive, agreeing in gender and number with its object if the verb be transitive, or with its predicative noun if the verb be use. This construction (in

which the Gerund usually occurs in the nominative form as subject or object, but occasionally also in the genitive) is employed in two ways: 1) the Gerund (with its object, if the verb be transitive) in combination with one of the verbs رقاب , منافع و نقل , منافع و نقل , منافع و نقل , منافع و نقل و

1) أُسَجِهُكُو جَانَا هَي 'I have to go' (mihi eundum est). 'I had to remain for (my) friend's sake.' 'you will have to write.'

we shall have to endure the consequences of this mistake (misapprehension).'

which of those matters that should ' جو کہنے کِي بات هَي کَونْسِي سِمِيں ' which of those matters that should ' کہتے

'be spoken of do we not mention?' کہتے 'if you had determined to act with اگرتُم کو آیسِي نا آشنائِي کرنِي such unsociableness.'

the works which a human being 'جو کام اِنْسان کو کڑنے پڑتے ھیں has to do.'

the seeker after it has to endure اُسَکے طالِب کو سخت تکلیف اَور severe trials and hardships.'

'we should now reflect a little.' اب همْکو ذرّه فِکْرکْرِنِی چاهِیئے
'we should so act in (our) life-time.' زنّدگِی میں اَیسے کام کُرْنے چاهِییں
'he should be punished,' or 'it is right to punish him.'

'it is unreasonable to expect friend' دُشَمن سے دوستی کِی توقُع (2) ship from an enemy.'

and I also practised physicing the' أور بِيماروں كو دوا دارُو دينِي بھِي sick.'

they began throwing huge stones ' بڙي بڙي پتھر کِشتيوں کِي طرف at the boats.'

if the divisibility of mind (lit. of ) اگر نفّسِ ناطِقت کے تُکّری ہونے the rational soul) be possible.

Rem. The choice between the Gerund and the Gerundive is determined entirely by euphony, or the mere pleasure of the writer. Some writers therefore retain the Gerund (فکر کرن) more frequently than others. Dehlī authors exhibit a preference for the Gerundive (فکر کرنی). To say, as some grammarians do, that these Gerundive forms are "compounds, like 'fox hunting,' 'speech-making,'" and that "compounds are occasionally found in which the words do not agree," is simply absurd. Perhaps these writers would say that in Ars puerorum educandorum difficilis est, "puerorum educandorum" is a compound, signifying "boy-educating." The Panjābī, we may observe, regularly uses the Gerund as a Gerundive. The Sindhī has a distinct Gerundive, differing however but slightly in form from the Infinitive: e.g. Inf.

# II. THE NOUN OF AGENCY.

416. The Noun of Agency holds a middle position between the verb and the noun, and partakes of the force

of both, following the government either of the verb or the noun, or of both. If it be derived from a directly transitive verb and have the meaning of the Present or Future, it may take an objective complement in the Genitive or the Accusative; but if it have the meaning of the Perfect, it approaches more nearly to the character of the noun, and is therefore construed with the Genitive alone: e.g.

those who restrain (or shall restrain) غُصَّهُ فرو كرِّنت واليے their wrath.'

O builders of (ye who build) houses ' آي شهر ميں گھروں کے بنانے والے in cities!'

bring the writer of (him who has ' إس خطك لِكَهْنَدَ والي كو حاضِر كرو written) this letter to me.'

except this dog there was none ' سِوائیے اِس کُتے کے کوئِی میرا who mourned for me (I had no mourner).'

417. It is also commonly used as the predicate of a preceding subject to express a proximate future: e.g.

'he is about going to Dillī.' وُهُ دِلِّي جانِے والا هَي 'he will die in (the course of) a day or so' (lit. to-day or to-morrow).

Rem. The above rules also apply to the Arabic and Persian nouns of agency and verbal adjectives which occur so commonly in Urdū; with this difference however, that when these govern the accusative, they generally stand as the predicate of a preceding subject: e.g.

'a seeker after rank and wealth.'

I am not a seeker of sustenance 'نہیں مُیں طالِبِ روزِي آسماں سے from heaven.'

all works.'

The construction with the genitive however is much the more common of the two, even in the case of the Hindi noun of agency.

### III. THE PARTICIPLES.

- 418. The Participles express the same notion as the verb to which they belong, but (excepting the Past Conjunctive Participle) in the form of an Adjective. They follow the government of the verb from which they are derived.
- 419. The participles are frequently employed to describe a contemporary, past, or future, action connected with the main action. The relations and circumstances expressed by them must often be expressed in English by subordinate propositions with conjunctions (e.g. while, during, when, after, as soon as, etc.), or by phrases with prepositions.

# a) THE IMPERFECT AND PERFECT PARTICIPLES.

- 420. The Imperfect and Perfect, or (if it belong to a transitive verb) Passive Participle have so much in common as regards their use and construction that they may be conveniently noticed together. When used adjectively they are usually distinguished by the addition to them of the perfect participle فرز but this is often omitted.
- 421. These participles are frequently used to indicate the state or condition (حال) of the subject or object of an

action while the action is taking place. Their agreement with the *subject* is in such cases determined by the following rules:

- 1) If the subject of the participle be likewise that of the finite verb, the participle agrees with it in gender and number: e.g.
- (a). یہہ کہتی گرئی چلِی گئیں 'she went away saying this.' (the dog) came to the dungeon)' اُن سے لتِّتا اِسِ چاہ پر آیا fighting and struggling with them (all the way).'
- ا گِرْتِي پِزِّتِي بِرِ*ِّي دِقَّت س*َّه يہاں 'I dragged myself along and (*lit*. falling and lying I) got here with great difficulty.'
- all at once the mother entered her ایکبارگی اُسکِی ما روتِی پیتنیی بیشی daughter's house weeping and beating (herself).'
- (b). دسترخواں بچبها هُوا تها ' the table-cloth was spread.' ' some woman was seated (or sitting).' کوئِي عَورت بَيتهِي هُوئِي نَهِي ' some woman was seated (or sitting).' داڙهِي سُفيد چهاتِي تک لَّکِي هَي ' his beard (which is quite) white hangs (is hanging) down to his breast.'
- 'grains (of corn) are lying before him.' اُسکے سامتینے دانے پڑی ہُوئے ہیں 'this brother was lying awake.' یہد بھائی لیتا ہُوا جاگتا تھا 'the moment (that) some wine jars 'جونہیں رنگ به رنگ کے حباب

- 'I saw pieces of diamond strewn 'ا مَسِن نے هِيرِي کے تُکْرِي پَهِيلے هُوئے 'about' (lit. 'pieces of diamond were seen strewn about by me').
- 2) But if the subject of the participles is not the same as that of the finite verb, both participles are constructed absolutely in the Locative singular, the postposition being suppressed; and the subject of the Imperfect Participle is often omitted: e.g.
- (a). سارِي رات تلپهت کتي 'the whole night passed in restlessness' (lit. 'I being agitated').

  (I said, weeping and sobbing the while.'
- (b). أن سے الزَّتا بهِزْتَا روائِي كو بچائے (the dog) fighting and struggling أن سے الزَّتا بهِزْتَا روائي كو بچائے with them came to the dungeon with the bread saved.'

'I was standing with my head hung ' سِر نِیچے کِیڈے کپڑا تھا down.'

you go showing your back (your back shown).'

'In short he came to the mouth of 'غرض پیر زن کو لِیئے مُوئے غار کے the pit with the old woman (the old woman brought with him).'

the princess came out dressed in ملک میلے کپڑی پہنے باہر زگلی dirty clothes.'

I was sitting with my arm thrown ' سَيں اُس جواں کے گلے میں بانھ round the young man's neck.'

In this example the subject of the verb \( \sigma \sigma \) is the following clause (the \( \sigma \sigma \) or that which is said), and the subject of the participle is the pronoun of the first person—it was said by me (as follows), and I was weeping.

if an elephant with his chain broken 'اگر ایک ها تھی زنج میر تُرائے هوئے سے 'were (lit. should be) coming.'

'I was under the impression that 'i was under the impression that that defile would prove my grave' (lit. 'I existed, that defile thought my grave').¹

which were with their heads out of 'جو بانتبهِي کے اندر سے سِر نِکالے تھے \*their holes.

a snake is (there is a snake) with a 'ایک مینڈک کو سانٹ پکڑی ھی frog caught' ('a snake has hold of a frog').

a (or the) python which is with 'a (has) its mouth wide open.'

Rem. The subject of the participle must necessarily be different from that of the finite verb when the participle is passive and, together with its object (Acc.), forms the Jo of the subject of the finite verb; for when this object takes the nominative form of the accusative, it stands as the subject of the participle, and when it occurs in the dative form. the construction becomes impersonal (§§ 306, 308). This will become evident if we take the first of the above examples (b) and resolve it into the different predications contained in it: e.g. 'the dog came to the dungeon, and he was fighting all the time he was coming, and the bread was saved by him,' or strictly, 'it was saved by him as regards the bread.'

I We have thought it necessary to multiply examples on this subject, because, firstly, the subject is one of importance; and secondly, its treatment in all existing grammars is most unsatisfactory. One of the most recent actually teaches that and عند are not perfect, or rather passive participles, but "irregular forms of the conjunctive participle!" and that in the last two examples above عند منا منا عند "forms of the perfect," signifying "has caught" and "has opened;" and no grammar attempts to lay down anything like a rule to guide the student in the use and construction of the participles.

- 3) If the Participle in either case be repeated for *emphasis*, or to indicate a *lasting* or *continuous state*, or even if such a state be implied without the repetition of the participle, it is always constructed *absolutely*, even though its subject be the same as that of the finite verb: *e.g.*
- (a). قرتے قرتے مکیں پاس گیا (fearing much).'
- marching on stage by stage I مَثْرِلَ بِ مِنْزِلَ چِلْتِے چِلْتِے نَیشاپُورِ arrived in Naishāpūr.'

'we keep singing while we stitch.'

(but I wearied of sitting still.' لیکن بے کار بَیتھے بَیتھے )۔ اُکتا گیا

she, continued listening silently, وُه چُپکے بُت کی طرح بَیہے seated like a statue.'

Rem. In sentences like the last but one, where the passive construction with is used, and the first is simply a perfect participle, the second must take the form of its causative in order to possess a passive character; but the signification differs in no respect by this change.

422. a. When the participles describe the state or condition of the object, they are somewhat differently constructed. In such cases the object usually occurs in the dative form of the accusative, and hence the concord between it and the participle is disturbed: but whereas the Imperfect Participle may be optionally put in the nominative or the locative absolute, the Perfect, or

Passive Participle always takes the form of the nominative: e.g.

(a). معَلُوم هُوا کِد دو شخصوں کو 'it appeared that they had (lit. have) حوري کرتے پگڙا هَي caught two persons stealing.'

'I left him sleeping by a spring.' مَيں نے اُسْکو چشمے پر سوتا چپوڙا 'one day having seen him entering کر ایک روز محل میں آتے دیکھ کر 'the palace they seized him.'

sceing him weeping he asked,' etc. ' أسے روتا ديكھ كر پۇچھا ك

(b). گهوڙي کو ميخ سے بندها هُوا (I saw the horse fastened to a peg.'

from that time (forward) he thinks 'اُس وفَّت سے مُجبہے مُوا هُوا اُس وفَّت سے مُجبہے مُوا هُوا اُس وفَّت سے مُجبہے مُوا

he all along thought me (supposed ' وُه صُجِهكُو تُّوبا هُوا جانَّنا تها that I had been) drowned.'

- b. The construction is the same if the object be a following clause introduced by جاد المحتاب میں بھي لِکيا د : as ايک روز کِتاب ميں بھي لِکيا د : one day he saw written in a book also, that,' etc.
- c. If the object occur in the nominative form of the accusative, the Participle will of course agree with it.

Rem. Of the two forms of the Imperfect Participle, the nominative is perhaps the correct one; at all events it is more in harmony with the construction of the Perfect Participle; and its regular use would moreover have the advantage of removing all ambiguity in sentences which have the passive construction with في . For example مَشَوْ فَعَالَ اللهُ عَلَيْهِ اللهُ عَلَيْهِ اللهُ عَلَيْهِ اللهُ عَلَيْهِ اللهُ ال

423. a. Distinct from the use of the participles as a is their use to indicate that an action takes place immediately after or simultaneously with another action expressed by the finite verb. The emphatic particle is added to the Imperfect Participle to indicate exact coincidence in point of time in the two actions.1 In such cases the participles are always constructed absolutely.

The subject of the Imperfect Participle may be the same as that of the finite verb (whereby, as also by the participle not taking the adjective form with 1,2, it is distinguished from the إلسم حاليه), or it may be different. the latter case, if the subject is expressed, it is put in the Formative or the genitive, the latter being the more common when the subject is animate.

The subject of the Perfect Participle is usually different from that of the finite verb, and is put in the Formative: e.g.

he took his departure on dawn ' فجر هوتے وُه رُخصت هُوا appearing.'

> on the order being given they کم هوتے وَه کبودّنے لگے commenced digging.'

as soon as the merchant saw (this), خواج نے دیکھتے ھی خاطِر دارِی he ministered consolation.' کی 'immediately on hearing this, anger

overcame me.

<sup>1</sup> Some grammarians mistakenly suppose that the imperfect participle must always be inflected when the particle is added to it, and hence pronounce this sentence ungrammatical: مُجِهِ جيتاهِي زمِين كَا پَيونْد كردو 'Thrust me into the ground alive (as I am).' The sentence is however quite grammatical; is not the so-called "adverbial participle," but the hai of the object mujhe.

I no sooner hecame detached than 'I no sooner hecame detached than 'I swooped down upon a boa-constrictor.'

(b). کیُوں اِتَّنِی رات گُلْم تُم آئے ، why have you come at this late hour of the night?' ('when so much of the night is gone').

پہر دِن چڙهي (مَيس) اُترا 'when one (the first) watch of the day was reached (when day had risen to one watch), I came down.'

b. If the Imperfect Participle has an objective complement expressed, this is put in the accusative or the genitive: e.g.

we all fled on the instant of seeing ' أنهيس ديكهتے هِي هم سب بهاگے them.'

the young man became as delighted 'جوان اُسکے دیکھتے ہی آیسا خُوش at the sight of her as if he had obtained the wealth of the world.'

Rem. The use of the objective complement in the genitive serves to show that the participle in such cases partakes of the character of the noun as well as that of the verb.'

- 424. In its adjective form either participle may be employed, 1) as an adjective defining a noun (either with the signification of a relative periphrasis, or to express a quality or state in general); and 2) as a substantive, concrete or abstract. As an abstract substantive the Imperfect Participle is equivalent to the Gerund: e.g.
  - 1) As an adjective:
- (a). سب میں نادان وُه هَي کر unwisest of all is he who rouses سوتے هُوئے فِتْنے کو جگاوي slumbering strife' (cf. § 47, Rem.b.).

'a talking maina.' ایک بولیتی هُوئِی مَبنا

'having seen a revolving millstone.' چَلْتِي چِکي دیکھ

(b). جماً هُوا عرق كَافُور كَهُلَاتًا هَي the congealed juice is called camphor.'

a written paper, or a paper with writing on it.'

'it may be some dead animal.' كوئي مُوا جانُور هوگا

2) As a substantive.

(a). قُرُبَّت کو تِنْک کا آسْرا بہات هي 'the support of a straw is ample for a drowning man' ('a drowning man clings to a straw').

'he awokeme from sleeping (=sleep).'

to be confident because of possessing 'to be confident because of possessing' 'to be confident because of possessing 'to be confident because of possession of 'to be confident because of possession of 'to be confident because 'to be confident be confident be confident because 'to be confident be

(b). آزْمائے کو پھِرکیا آزْماؤں 'to what purpose should I again test what has been tested.'

'I am come as the emissary of the سانّپ کا بھیجا ھُوا آیا کُوں snake.'

'I am suffering remorse in consequence of my deed.'

a band of those who had experienced ' راہ میں ہزیمت کھائے ہُوؤں کا defeat having arrived on the road.'

Rem. This use of the participles corresponds to that of the Active and Passive Participles—the إَسَمِ مُفْعُولُ and السَّمِ مُفْعُولُ and السَّمِ مُفْعُولُ إِنَّامٍ فَاعِلُ مَا اللهِ ال

used for the Infinitive, chiefly in connection with the quasi-impersonal verb چاهیدئے: e.g.

the work which (you) ought to do 'to-day.'

we should not rejoice at (in con- 'دُشْمن کِي مَوت سے خُوش نہ هُوا (sequence of) the death of an enemy.'

an abstract (verbal) substantive in combination with the verb المجاب, when this is equivalent to مو سكنا, and in the Frequentative and Desiderative Compounds (§ 24 and Rem.): e.g.

'I could not drown myself' (lit. 'drowning was not possible by me').

'there's no fighting against fate.' تقديرسے لڙا نبيس جاتا

i kept wandering about (lit. I did ' مَين بِين بِهِرا كِيا ' نَمَين بِهِرا كِيا ' i kept wandering about (lit. I did or made wandering) in that jungle the whole day.'

Rem. Observe also the following: ميرا کها مال 'mind what I say' (lit. 'my saying—what I shall say, or am about to say').

427. The Passive Participle, when governed by one of the postpositions بغير, or بغير, has in some instances an active signification: e.g.

that without my bidding (thee) thou کے بے میری کہے میری ساتھ کھانا 'that without my bidding (thee) thou eatest food with me.'

how can he keep alive without ' بغَير کھائيے کيُوٽکر زِنْده ره سکتا ھي eating?'

# b) THE PAST CONJUNCTIVE PARTICIPLE.

428. a. The Past Conjunctive Participle is very often used in Urdū so as to avoid the use of conjunctions where several predications are united in the one sentence: e.g.

'having said this, he went away.' بيه كېكرچلاگيا

having invented some pretext, and 'کُچ بات بناکراَور جواهِراَور پوشاث having taken the jewels and dress, ملکر اَور قِیمت اُسکِي دیکر and having given the price thereof,

I requested permission to go' (i.e. 'I invented some pretext, and after taking the jewels and dress and paying for them, I requested,' etc.).

b. We sometimes find a preceding verb repeated in the participle: as

'he rose, and having risen went out.' وُهُ أَتَّهَا أُورِ أَتَّهَكُر بِاهِرَكَيا (the juice having flowed (out) عرق بهد كرايك برّتن ميں جمّع (collects in a vessel, and having جمّع هوكر جم (collected, congeals.'

429. The participle most commonly refers, as in the above examples, to the subject of the finite verb, or, if the construction be passive, to the Agent. In the latter case, when the participle is, and a predicative adjective or participle is joined to it, this, if capable of inflection, is always put in the inflected masculine singular: e.g.

the young man became cool and ' أس جوان نے رُوکھے پہیکے هوکر constrained, and said.'

and having become angry, I ordered ' أور كيسياني هوكر فرّمايا ك that,' etc.

after that, having stood up, he read ' بعد أسك كهڙي هوكريه خُطَبه پڙها this discourse.'

430. But the participle may refer to the object (dative, accusative); and in the same sentence one participle may refer to the subject, and another to the Agent: e.g.

having heard this, jealousy possessed me ' یہہ بات سُنگر مُجھے بھی also.'

also.' غیرت آئی also.' there is no assured refuge anywhere to ثحدا کیے حُکم سے بھاگت کر اللہ کہیں تھکانا flee to from God's decree' (lit. 'having fled, or fleeing from, God's decree, there is no assured refuge for you to go to').

at last, having made me promise and نجر وعَده أن حِيزوں كو swear that I would return after leaving ليكر أور قسم كهلاكر رُخصت those things (at home), he let me go.'

ن (هوکر (هوکر) 'the princess having become pleased, the trays (of jewels, etc.) were made over موالے هُوئے اَور فرّمایا to the steward, and she said.'

431. The participle may even be used absolutely, without reference to a subject, as is the case when the finite verb is in the passive voice: e.g.

he was dug out alive' (' they having 'é کھوں کر جِمِتا نِکالا گیا dug, he was taken out alive').

432. The participle is often repeated for the sake of emphasis, or to indicate a repeated or continued action: as

we kept breaking the fruits and مبوي توڙ توڙ کر جمنع کرنے لگے collecting them.'

having kept on throwing stones, they پتھر مار کے سب کِشْتِیاں ڈُبو sank all the boats.

433. In some instances the Conjunctive Participle has all the force of an adverb, and would appear to be used as such: e.g.

'he did this wittingly' أس نے جال بُوجه كريه كام كيا 'he laughed aloud' وُه كَهِلْكِيلًا كرهنسا

I made that book over to him کچیپا کر وُد کِتاب آور کِتابوں کے secretly along with others.'

'I tied it tight.' أُسِے مُغَبُّرُوط كَرَّكِ بِالْدَهَا 'he walks lame.'

## b. THE INDICATIVE AND ITS TENSES.

# I. THE AORIST.

434. The Aorist, though more commonly employed in the Subjunctive Mood, is also used in propositions, both leading and subordinate, which deal with *facts*, whether actual or assumed for the purpose of argument; in other words, it occurs in the *Indicative Mood*.

The Aorist does not in itself express any idea of time; it merely indicates a begun, incomplete, enduring existence either in present or future time. Hence it has the signification of the English Present, as well as that of the Future Indefinite: e.g.

خدا جانے 'God knows.'

now do what I tell (am about to tell) you.'

when does a noble-minded man 'خُوشامد کب کری عالِي طبِيعت ' when does a noble-minded man fawn upon the rich' (i.e. 'a noble-minded man never fuwns upon the rich').

الا کِ بِهِر سفر کرُوں 'It came into my mind "I will travel again."

when I die (shall die), bury me out ' جب مَيں مر جاؤں گاڙداب of sight.'

you sit here, I will go and announce ' تُم يہاں بَيتَتِو مَين جاكر خبر كُرُوں (your arrival).'

he said: Come, I'll take you to the 'اُس نے کہا چلو آج تُمهیں پاڈشاہ king to-day.'

435. The Aorist is commonly used in proverbs: e.g.

when misfortune comes, a dog bites 'کم بختی جو آوی اُونْت چڑھے 'one (who is) mounted on a camel.'

one commits the fault, another is 'گُناه کوئِي کري سزا کوئِي پاوي punished for it.'

436. To render the idea of *present* time still more distinct, the auxiliary verb هُوں, etc., is added to the Aorist: as

when I rub my eyes and look.' آنگہیں ملکرکے جو دیکھُوں ھُوں ' when I rub my eyes and look.' آتِشِ عِشْق سے جلے ھَي دِل ' my heart burns with love's fire.' فَدُ كُرِي هَي بِرُكِتِ گُل مركب ' now it makes the leaf of the rose its steed' (i.e. ' one moment it mounts the rose, another it,' etc.).

But this form of the Present, though once very common, is now rarely used in Urdū (see § 189, Rem.).

437. As a present tense the Aorist is employed in narrative for a past (the *Historical Present*): e.g.

(الله الله الله ) 'when I went forward and looked, آگے جاکر جو دیکھُوں (الله دیکھُوں

it came (was coming, lit. comes) جي ميس آوي کِ يا اِلْهِي بِهه دم into my mind, "O God! if this breath of life depart, it is better."

- 438. The Aorist often occurs in a form identical with that of the Precative<sup>2</sup> (§ 176) in the three persons of the singular, and with nasal n added to that form in the plural: e.g.
- 1 Most European grammarians ignore this tense altogether, and those who do notice it wrongly term it "a perfect," and generally mistake for it the perfect participle when this is used as a hāl in connection with a subject that has for its predicate one of the verbs of the connection with a subject that has for its predicate one of the verbs of the connection with a subject that has for its predicate one of the verbs of or the connection with a subject that has for its predicate one of the verbs of or the connection with a subject that has for its predicate one of the verb pakre hai, they call pakre hai "a perfect," and translate, "the snake has caught a frog;" whereas pakre is a hāl, and the translation should be a snake is (there is a snake) with a frog caught. As a finite verb pakre hai would signify "catches," not "has caught."
- 2 It does not follow that because this form is identical with that of the precative, therefore this, or, as the grammarians phrase it, "the respectful imperative," is used for the acrist. In the use of these precative forms the Hindi and Urdū follow the Prākṛit pretty closely, and the following extracts from the Prākṛita-Prakāśa (ed. Cowell, sect. vii. 20, 21) show that they are not used the one for the other, but that, though connected both in form and signification, they are yet distinct: "Jja, jjā are optionally substituted for the proper affixes of the present and the definite future, and also when command, etc., are implied: e.g. hojja, hojjā, or hoi, 'he is;' hasejjā, hasejjā, or hasai, 'he laughs;' (and the same form applies to the three persons in both numbers;) future hojja, hojjā, hohii, 'he will be;' and similarly in the sense of the imperative." "Jja, jjā are also optionally inserted between the root and the affixes" in the same tenses; "as (present) hojjai, hojjāi; (future) hojjahii, hojjāhi; (imperative) hojjaii, hojjāu;" this however only occurs "when the root ends in a vowel, and is therefore monosyllabic."

what shall I say respecting those 'کیا کہیئے اُں لوگوں کو جو نا فڑماني people who, having rebelled, unکرکے ناحق اُس سے برگشته

justly turn away from Him?'

Rem. Additional examples of this form of the Aorist will be found under the Subjunctive Mood, in which it more commonly occurs.

in the sense and after the manner of opus, necesse, est, 'it is necessary,' debet, 'it is proper or right,' oportet, 'it behoves,' with an infinitive, or a gerundive and its substantive, or a perfect participle used as a gerund (§ 425), as the subject, the true subject or agent of the act usually preceding in the Dative, if a definite agent is implied; the agent, however, is not always expressed—rarely so if the idea of duty, etc., implied in the phrase chāhiye is of general application, or if the infinitive is accompanied by an object in the dative form of the accusative: e.g.

whatever the master wants is ready ' جو صاحِب کو چاهِیئے سب '. (to be had).'

إن لوگوں کو منعَلُوب رکھنا چاهِمِئے '(the king) should keep these people under subjection' (lit. 'to keep these people under subjection is necessary for the king').

'we should now consider a little.' اب همگو ذرّہ فِکْر کَرْنِي چاهِيئے 'one should perform such acts' زِنْدگِي سيں اَيسے کام کَرْنِے چاهِييں in life.' 'I ought to go once there also.' ایک دفعه وهاں بھِي چلا ( = چُلنا) عاهِيئے

the explanation of this should be 'the explanation of this should be عالموں سے پُوچیا 'asked of the doctors of religion' (lit. 'asking the explanation of this of the doctors is necessary').

Rem. a. The agent of the act is sometimes put in the genitive in construction with an Arabic nomen actionis; as فقيركا عمل أن پر a faķīr should act upon them.' And if the thing necessary or requisite be a quality, or that which should be found in some person or thing, the locative is generally used instead of the dative: e.g. وي 'what special qualities are those which a messenger should possess?' ('which are requisite in a messenger').

Rem. b. چاهیئے is also very commonly used in the Subjunctive Mood: the infinitive is then replaced by the ordinary Aorist, which follows چاهیئے, and is preceded by  $\leq$  (= Latin ut), the agent of the act either preceding chāhiye in the dative, or following it in the nominative: e.g. پاکشاه کو چاهیئے کے اِن لوگوں کو معلوب رکھے خاص رکھے 'the king should keep these people under subjection.'

Rem. c. The phrases بنناسب هي ,لازم هي, نضرور هي, it is necessary, right, or proper, are used in the same way as چاهِيدُ , chiefly in the Subjunctive.

Rem. d. According to some European grammarians any "Respectful Imperative," as they term it, may be used "with a sense of obligation, and may be translated ought, should, or must." This however is not correct; chāhiye alone can, of itself, be so used. The examples given by them are such as the following: المن المنافق المنافق أور بالمنافق أور بالمنافق كيجيف أور بالمنافق كيجيف

and watch' (not "we must stay in this wood and keep watch"); النَّائِيس (my) دروازي كِي طرف لكت رهِي تهِيس كه ديكهِيك كيا ظاهِر هوتا هي eyes were kept fixed on the door to see (lit. saying to myself "Let me see") what was (lit. is) about to appear' (not "my eyes were fixed on the door, and I said I must see," etc.).

440. To imply that an act should or ought to have been done, the phrase چاهِيئے تھا is employed: as

نیرا گھونسّلا ایک کائٹے کے درخمت 'thy nest ought to have been (built) نیرا گھونسّلا ایک کائٹے کے درخمت in some thorny bush or on the top of a wall, (and) not in the king's سرا میں palace.'

Rem. The same phrase is used in the Subjunctive also (§ 467, Rem. c).

## II. THE FUTURE INDEFINITE.

441. Although the Aorist itself has the signification of the simple Future, yet to render the futurity of the act quite distinct, the perfect participle & (see § 187) is added to it; and thus the Future also derives the signification of an *Intentional* and a *Desiderative*: e.g.

'I shall see,' and 'I wish to, or would, see.'

eventually I shall die, and what 'آخِر مر جاوِّنْگا تب خُدا کو کیا "answer shall I then give to God '

i would question Your Highness ' بغضي بعضي باتيس خُضُور ميس about certain matters.'

442. The participle & is also added to the Precative form of the Aorist to form the Future : e.g.

wilt thou (wouldst thou, is it thy) پَيدا كِيجِبِيكًا آپِ أُس شُخُص كو جو رُوئي زميں ير فساد اَور خُون intention to) create a being who ریزی کری will work mischief and shed blood on the face of the earth?'

if you pull (will pull) so (i.e. as you 'if you pull (will pull) so (i.e. as you 'are going to do), it will not leave

hold of the pulp of the brain.'

Rem. The Future and the Aorist being thus intimately connected, we often find the one used for the other, especially in conditional and hypothetical sentences, where in English the Present Indicative, or the Present or Future Subjunctive, is used; as اگر دیر لگاؤنگا تو وی اِس if I tarry long, he in this state of 'پیری میں روتے روتے مرجائینگ اگر اُسکے نزیریک جاؤگے تو گُنہؓگار '; old age will weep himself to death فِي نه 'if you go near it you sin' (lit. 'will become a sinner'); کو نه مُجه میں قُدْرت کہنے کِی اُور نہ تُجھ میں طاقت سُنْنے کِی رہیگی for (were I to attempt it), I should not have the power to tell, nor you the patience (lit. power) to listen.

# III. THE PRESENT TENSE.

443. The Present Tense is used to indicate an act which is now taking place, or a repeated, habitual, or enduring act; it also commonly expresses a universal truth, e.g.

> "what is he doing?" وُه كيا كرَّتا هَي what are you looking at?' or 'what do you see?'

المجيَّة عَلَى مَسِ يِهِ سب 'I understand all this that you are مَسِ يِهِ سب 'I saying.'

men conform to the ways of their 'آڈمِی الّینے پاڈشاہوں کے طرِیقے kings.'

this sun and moon are revolving ' رات دِن بِيه وَمِهْرُومَاهُ بِهِرْتَبَ هَيسَ night and day.'

Rem. a. An act which is now taking place may also be expressed by using the perfect participle of a verb compounded with نم in place of the imperfect participle, for in both cases the participle is used as a hāl:

e.g. عُورت 'the master is sleeping;' عُورت 'the woman is bathing.'

Rem. b. The auxiliary, both in this tense and the Perfect, occasionally takes the form هيگ , which is generally more emphatic than وَهُ عَلَى اللهُ ا

444. The auxiliary is often omitted, chiefly in negative sentences (cf. § 148, Rem.), and the Present then assumes the form of the Past Conditional, but the two tenses must not be confounded: e.g.

the people of the caravan do not 'قافِلے کے آڈمی اِس لِیڈے نہیں ' mention (it), because you would be ashamed.'

'no one falls into a well of himself.' کوئِي آپ سے کُوئے میں نہیں گِرتا

And in two co-ordinate sentences, the verbs of which are both in the Present, the auxiliary of one may be omitted, unless emphasis requires it to be repeated: e.g.

'.she neither moves nor stirs' وُه نـ هِلَّتِي هَي نـ گُـلْتِي

445. The Present Tense is commonly used in narrative for a past for the sake of greater vividness (the Historical Present): e.g.

when I rubbed my eyes and looked 'آنگھیے ملکے جو دیکھتا ھوں تو أس مكان مين نه وُه بُوڙها هَي نه کوئِی آور هَی

(lit. when, having rubbed my eves. I look), lo! neither that old man nor any one else was (lit. is) in that house.'

thereupon we began to weep and ' بھر رونے لگے آور فریاد آور زاری كُرْنَے لگے مگر كيا هوتا هَي أور

to cry aloud and wail, but what comes of it? and who hears?' (i.e. nothing came of it, etc.).

446. The Present Tense is also frequently used for the Future to indicate that an action will take place forthwith, or shortly after the time of speaking: e.g.

'you go, I also am coming (immediately).' تُم چِلُو مَين بھِي چِلْتا هُون '.I will this instant give the order' مَيسِ ابھِي حُكَّم كُرْتا هُوں "I shall speedily return. جلَّد بهر آتا هُور

447. The Present Tense is occasionally employed in conditional sentences as a Future Subjunctive: as

if I too forbid (her), I shall be 'اگر مَیں بھی منّع کڑتا ھُوں تو ابھِي مَينا کِي طرح سے مارا instantly killed as the mainā has جاتا هُوں been.'

if I come according to my plighted 'if I come according to my plighted 'اگر مَیں اپّنِی بانِی پر آتا هُوں تو أُسْكِي سلطنت كو خاك ميں word, I will mingle his kingdom ملاديتا هُور with the dust.'

<sup>1</sup> That is to say, "if I say I will come and do come." We know of no authority for the meaning of "one's own might," which is given to the word  $b\bar{a}n\bar{i}$  in the vocabulary of the Tota Kahani. The word means simply 'speech,' 'word,' and the phrase banī par ana is explained by Urdū scholars as we have translated it.

Rem. An act which it is intended to perform (the Present Intentional) is expressed as in English: e.g. وُهُ لِكَهُنِّ كُو هُي 'he is going to write' (see § 412.)

IV. THE PAST IMPERFECT TENSE.

448. The Past Imperfect Tense indicates an action which was going on at some past time spoken of: as

he was wandering about, looking around ' هر طرف ديكهّنا پهِرْتا تها him.'

'a very soft breeze was blowing ' هُوَا نَزْمَ نَزْمَ بَبْتِي تَهِي

Rem. The same idea is expressed by using the perfect participle of a verb compounded with نقط in place of the simple imperfect participle; وهنا (هني (= نهاتي) تهيي آهِست آهِست آهِست آهِست يه 'she was bathing;' وُلَا نها رهِي (I was repeating this verse in a very low voice.'

449. In many cases this tense must be rendered by the English Past Indefinite: as

he did whatever they told him (at جو یہہ کہتے تھے سو کرتا تھا the time).'

450. The auxiliary is often omitted: e.g.

every one I saw (at the time) جو کوئي آڏويي ميري نظر پڙتا forbade me.

I As this tense then assumes the form of the Past Conditional, it is very generally mistaken for the latter by European grammarians. The two tenses, however, are essentially different, the one occurring in the Indicative Mood alone, the other only in the Subjunctive, and never admitting of the auxiliary after it, as the Imperfect Indicative does. Nor can either of these tenses ever have the signification of the Present, as the grammarians affirm.

if she did not bring water, he (the 'if she her vessels.'

Rem. In two coordinate sentences, the verbs of both of which are in the Past Imperfect, the auxiliary is usually expressed with the last alone: as وُهُ شُكِّر خُداكا كُرْتا أُور كُوجٍ دركُوجٍ جِلاَ جاتا تها he was thanking God and going on stage by stage.'

451. The Past Imperfect is frequently used to indicate an act that was wont to be done, and the auxiliary is then often omitted: e.g.<sup>1</sup>

ٹلیمان 'they used to name that pit Solomon's کہتے تھے کا نام زِنْدانِ سُلیمان 'Prison.'

I effaced from my mind the pleasure ' غِیبت سُنّے میں جو مزا آتا تھا I was wont to derive from listening اُسّکو دِل سے بھُلا دِیا to slander.'

and that complexion (or colour) أور وُه رنْگ جو كُنْدن سا دمكتا تها ' which used to glisten like bright gold became like turmeric.'

when he used to return from his جس وقت سفر سے آتا هر ايک travels, he was wont to bring سوغات لاتا اَور مُجهے دیتا curiosities of each country (he visited) as presents for me' (lit. 'and used to give them to me').

# v. THE PAST INDEFINITE TENSE.

452. The Past Indefinite Tense indicates an action completed at some past time, and is commonly employed in narrating past events which do not involve the idea of duration. Its passive construction (when the participle

is passive), as also that of the other past tenses composed of a passive participle, has been explained in § 185, 191, etc.: e.g.

he left it at my house on his way.' وُه ميري مكان پر دي گيا 'he took the road to the desert.'

453. a. After the conditional particles راگر, 'if,' and after other particles (e.g. جب 'when,' etc.), which imply the conditional meaning of راگر, the Past Indefinite often takes a future sense, the condition being represented as already fulfilled; but it may be rendered in English by the Present: as

if this secret is (lit. was, or became) اگریب. راز فاش هُوا تو تیـري حق divulged, it will be (lit. is) very bad for you.'

ن لیکن ایک کام همارا هی ۔ اگر وُد ن اللہ ن ایک کام همارا هی ۔ اگر وُد ن اللہ ن الہ ن اللہ ن

5. The verbs of the *principal* clauses in the above sentences are in the Present and Future, but the Past Indefinite is also employed to indicate an act, the occurrence of which is so certain, that it may be described as having already taken place: as

اگر پاڏشاه آيس لوگوں کي جهُوله سچ باتيں سُننے لگا آور اصل حال کي تحقيق پر اِلْتِفات نه کِي ـ تو طرح طرح کي خرابياں پيدا هُوئيں

'if the king begins to listen to the misrepresentations (lit. false and true words) of such persons, and does not attempt to inquire into the actual facts of the case, various kinds of evils will result (lit. have resulted).

### VI. THE PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

454. The Present Perfect (or Past Proximate) Tense indicates an act which at the moment of speaking has been already completed, and remains in a state of completion: e.g.

'he is gone to Kānhpūr (Cawnpore) وُد كَانْهُرُورگيا هَي.'
'the Rāja Ṣāḥib has killed a tiger.'

455. The auxiliary is often omitted, or in other words the Past Indefinite is used for the Present Perfect: e.g.

these four things that have been ' يبهه چار باتيں جو اُوپر بيان هُوئِيں mentioned above.'

'naught but injury can proceed from 'جس شخّص کے سِینے میں کِین 'naught but injury can proceed from 'جم گیا (ھی ۔80) اُس سے بجُز him in whose breast hatred has ضرر کے گُچہ فائدہ حاصل نہ ہوگا ' established itself.'

Rem. In the colloquial the Present Perfect is frequently used for the Present in the sense of the Proximate Future, and in such cases the auxiliary is generally omitted: e.g. (Master loq.) هماري ٿوپي اُور چنڙي 'bring my hat and stick quickly;' (Servant) جند لاؤ 'I am bringing it, Sir' (lit. 'I have brought').

## VII. THE PAST PERFECT TENSE.

456. The Past Perfect (or Past Remote) Tense indicates that an act had taken place at the time spoken of, or anterior to some other past event spoken of or implied: e.g.

But the auxiliary is often omitted, or in other words the Past Indefinite is used for the Past Perfect. It must however be rendered in English by the Past Perfect: eg.

'I had reasoned a great deal with مَيس نے زید کو بہُت سمجہایا (عور ) Zaid.'

457. The Past Perfect is often used where in English we use the Past Indefinite; usually so when the action is regarded by the narrator as completely past, so that its results have already become manifest at the time spoken of; or when it is implied that since the occurrence of that action, another, in some way connected with it, has occurred: e.g.

and whatever I (had) promised when ' اَور جب شیرنے میری تئیں تیری ' the lion (had) sent me to bring ' نے عہد و پَیمان کِیا تھا thee.'

the cat came (lit. had come), (and) I بِلِّي آئِي تَهِي مَيں نے اُسْكو تَتُولا تَهَا (had) felt her, and she was wet
(and so I knew it was raining).

Rem. The Past Perfect Indicative is sometimes used for the Past Conditional, for the sake of greater vividness: as اُس دوسّت نے مُجہد دانا دُسّمن نہ ہوتا توکام میرا ہاتھ سے جا چُکا ہلاک کِیا تھا۔ اگریہہ دانا دُسّمن نہ ہوتا توکام میرا ہاتھ سے جا چُکا

rthat friend well nigh destroyed me: if it had not been for this wise enemy, my work was well nigh gone from my hands, and my life brought to a close in this vain idea.'

#### c. THE IMPERATIVE.

458. The Imperative has only the second person singular and plural; the other persons are supplied by the aorist. It has two forms, the Imperative proper, which is used in giving orders, directions, or advice, and the Precative (§ 176), which implies simple request, advice, entreaty, or exhortation.

Rem. The second of the Precative forms, however, often has the force of a command, as will be seen from the examples given below.

- 459. The Precative again has two forms, one ending in \_\_\_\_\_, the other in ير\_\_\_, both of which are used in either the singular or plural, the former always in connection with the pronomen reverentiæ \_\_\_\_, expressed or understood, the latter with the personal pronouns تُر 'thou,' and 'you.'
- 460. The Imperative, and the Precative ending in iye, are used with reference to the immediate present, or without reference to any definite time; the Precative ending in iyo most commonly refers to the Future. The addition of & to the Precative ending in iye imparts to it also a future signification, but the form is not very common: e.g.
- 'mind what I say, and chase this میرا کهنا مان آور اِس بیهُوده آرزو vain desire from thy mind.'

  'you sit here.'

'mention to this slave anything you جو کُچه درگار هو اِس خانه زاد کو may require.'

ریسے شعب رو نام نام نام در کار هو اِس خانه زاد کو معالی کو کھا پیکر پھر آؤیو آور جو this, and take whatever you want.'

ریم نام کو کھا پیکر پھر آؤیو آور جو نام کو کھا پیکر پھر آؤیو آور جو نام کو کھا پیکر پھر آؤیو آور جو نام کی نام کو کھا نام کو کھا تا کہ نام کا کہ نام کا کہ نام کو کہ نام کہ نام

say: I am an inhabitant of Persia.'
مَسِ عَجِم كَا رَهْنِنَے وَالَّا هُوں
and if not, do (i.e. you shall do)
نہیں تو جو جِی چاهیگا سو سُجہے
unto me whatever you please.'

Rem. The English Imperative being used to express a request as well as an order, it is not at all necessary to employ such phrases as "please to do," or "you will be pleased to do," etc., in rendering the Precative forms; nor indeed do these phrases at all represent the idea in a native's mind when he uses a Precative. We have repeatedly observed, that when a native scholar well acquainted with English is asked to render in Urdū such an expression as "please do this," he invariably uses the phrase az rāhē mihrbānī isko karo or kījiye. It is evident too that in not a few cases the phrases "please to," etc., cannot be applied: as for example in the following sentence, in which the speaker is soliloquizing: كَاكُونُ الْمُولِّ الْمُؤْلِلُ الْمُولِّ الْمُؤْلِّ الْمُولِّ الْمُؤْلِّ الْمُؤْلِّ الْمُؤْلِّ الْمُؤْلِّ الْمُؤْلِّ الْمُؤْلِّ الْمُؤْلِّ الْمُؤْلِّ الْمُؤْلِّ الْمُؤْلِي الْمُؤْلِّ الْمُؤْلِّ الْمُؤْلِّ الْمُؤْلِّ الْمُؤْلِّ الْمُؤْلِي الْمُؤْلِّ الْمُؤْلِي اللهِ اللهُ الْمُؤْلِي الْمُؤْلِي الْمُؤْلِّ الْمُؤْلِي الْمُؤ

461. The Precative ending in o is also employed in benedictions and imprecations: e.g.

'may you be happy!' خُوش رهيو 'may you be happy!'
شركوں أور مُشْرِكوں 'may the curse of God be upon 'خُداكِي لغنت كَافِروں أور مُشْرِكوں infidels and believers in a plurality of gods!'

in connection with the Imperative usually express a strict negation, but the former is occasionally prohibitive (especially in connection with the Precative ending in iyo); the negative is used in a prohibitive sense, and hence occurs with the Imperative or Precative alone: e.g.

'be not afraid.' تُو ڈر نہیں 'be not afraid.' آخِرت کے سامان کڑنے میں 'neglect not to make preparation for 'فقلت نہ کر 'the world to come.'

'don't go home to-day.' آج گھر مت جاؤ

'rely not on their friendship.' أَن كِي آشْنائِي كا إعْتِماد نه كرِيب

you are not to approach this tree' (or ' اِس درخت کے پاس نہ جائیو ' thou shalt not go near this tree').

'you will not forget' ('take care that you don't forget').

Rem. As the negative idea not occur in the Bāg o bahār in connection with the Imperative, therefore, we suppose, the European grammarians say, that it "is not used with the Imperative." That it is so used will be seen from the first of the above examples, and we may add that (though not so common as i) it is by no means uncommon in such cases.

463. The Aorist, which is connected with the Imperative both in form and signification, is used instead of it in the first and third persons, but usually with less authority than the Imperative: e.g.

what was it that he said? let me 'وُه کیابات تَجِي؟ دَرّا مَیں بھِي also just hear.'

let us see what is recorded in her دیکھیں اِس کے نصیبوں میں کیا اُلکھا کھی destiny.'

but let the princess promise this, 'but let the princess promise this, to wit, that she will not withdraw from what she has said' (not, "the princess must promise, etc.").

let no one plead advanced age as ' کمال نہ حاصِل کڑنے کے لِیئے عُمْر an excuse for not acquiring (not trying to attain to) perfection.'

464. Reversely, the Imperative is occasionally used for the second person singular of the Aorist, usually in the first of two correlative clauses which follow a particle implying a condition or the relative pronoun, when the second clause contains an Imperative: e.g.

'do whatever you think proper.' جو مُناسِب جان ( = جانے) سو كر

Rem. The use of the Imperative for the Aorist is not so common as the grammarians suppose; it occurs, we believe, only in sentences of the description mentioned above. In the following examples the last verb is not "an Aorist in the Imperative form," but a simple Imperative: نام کرکِ شیزادی کو فریب سے مار ڈال 'do so (or act in this wise): kill the prince by stratagem' (not, "act in such a manner as to kill, etc.," for  $\zeta$  here is simply explicative, and does not denote the

purpose or object of the verb in the first clause); حب تأیین تُو پارچلنے

in the mean time you make some arrangement to cross over' (not, "whilst thou formest some plan, etc.").

465. The Imperative, singular and plural, of the verb to take,' is often used as an interjection, signifying there or there now! enough! peace! etc.: e.g.

'enough! go on with thy work.' لے آپنا کام کر 'there now! I have told you my ' لے مَیں نے آپنِی حقیقت سب ' whole history.'

there! you have seen me; is your ' لو مُجهد دیکها خاطِر جمّع هُوئی mind relieved?'

I said: Now have done! you have کیں نے کہا لو اب بہّت مگر چگر 'I said: Now have done! you have کیا

### d. THE SUBJUNCTIVE AND ITS TENSES.

## I. THE AORIST.

- 466. The Aorist is used in the Subjunctive Mood, as a Present or Future, in correlative conditional clauses that depend upon اگر, or any particle having the sense of اگر. The conditional clause commonly precedes the principal clause (but it may follow it), and is separated from it by the جواب شرط, or correlative particle, تو, which is generally not translated. The Aorist is used in one or both clauses, according to the following rules:
- 1) a. If both the conditional and the principal clause imply uncertainty, doubt, possibility, or indefiniteness, the Aorist is used in both: e.g.

'if he should come, what am I to do?' اگر وُده آجاوی تو کیا کُرُوں 'if he should come, what am I to do?' اگر اجازت هو تو اُنگا حال تُمهاری their case in your presence.' خنظل سے شہد تیکیے جو لگے نشتر 'honey would drop from the colocyth-gourd if the sting of the honey-bee were to touch it.'

b. The Present Potential occasionally occurs in place of the Aorist in the principal clause: e.g.

if one look at the princess's doif one look at the princess's doif one look at the princess's doif one look at the princess's dominion, its revenue probably does
not suffice (may not be sufficing) for
the expenditure of the cuisine
alone.'

c. And an Imperative may take the place of the Aorist in the conditional clause: as

'warm a little water and I'll bathe.' تهوڙا پانِي گرم کر دي تو نهاؤُں bestow on me a living son, then ايک بيٿا جيتا جاڱتا سُجهے دي will my name and the trace of this نشان قائِم رهے empire endure.'

Rem. The Aorist of the conditional clause may often be rendered in English by the Past Imperfect, as in the third of the above examples.

2). If the condition be regarded as uncertain, or only possible, etc., while the conditioned is regarded as certain and posițive, the Aorist is employed in the conditional, and the Present or Future Indicative in the principal clause: as

'if you come, it is well.' اگر چلو تو اچها هَي 'if it succeed, it is a great matter.'

any one who pretends to this is a 'جو کوئي دعّوی کري آسکا بڙا نادان great fool.'

honour will be obtained by him ' شرافت أسِي كو حاصِل هوگَني كِ alone on whom the monarch shall فرّماوي look with favour.'

Rem. a. The Relative Pronoun, implying as it often does a virtual hypothesis, is commonly followed by the Subjunctive, as in the last of the above examples. (cf. § 388, Rem.)

Rem. b. The Future is often used in the conditional clause also, and occasionally where the idea of certainty is, to say the least, not very prominent (see § 442, Rem.); but wherever this idea is prominent, the Indicative is used in both clauses: e.g. اگر جلّد آؤگے تو مُجهے جیتا 'if you come soon (as I expect, or am sure, you will), you will find me alive.'

467. The Aorist is also employed in subordinate clauses with one or other of the conjunctions  $\div$  'that,'  $\not\le$  (= Lat. ut), ناک 'in order that' (= Lat. quo), بشرطیک 'on condition, or provided, that,' ناید ک 'it may be that, perchance,' etc., to express an object or purpose, effect or consequence, resolution, hope, desire, disinclination, order, advice, necessity, duty (as signified by the phrases چاهیئے , گزم کی , etc. see § 439 and Rem. b.), effort, permission, fear, etc.: e.g.

I determined to go (that I would فصّد کِیا کِ اُس راہ سے چلُوں go) by that road.'

it appears better for men that they آڈوبیوں کے واسطے یہہ بہتر معّلوم become recluses.' موتا کھی کہ گوشہ نِشِیں ہو جائیں

<sup>1</sup> This construction, which is found in the Persian also, would appear to be derived from the Arabic.

the king should so treat his lords ' یادشاہ کو چاہیئے کے اُمرا آور اركان دولت سے أيسا برتاؤ كري كِ. أَنْكُو بِادْشاه كِي مُوافقت أور نیک خواهی کا یقین هوجائے

and nobles that they may be assured of His Majesty's sympathy and good-will.'

a messenger (or emissary) should be حاهیئے کے قاصد فاضل هو one possessed of learning.'

ماهیت دریافت کری

if you have great desire to know ' اگر تُجهے آرزُو کمال کھی کہ یہہ this matter.'

I am afraid that he may not perhaps 'مَسِي ذَرْتا هُون كِد شايد دُعائي بد نہ کری

curse me (or, according to an idiom of the language, 'that he may curse me').

شادِي كِي تاكِ اَپْنِي قُوّْتِ غَصْبِي کو مغلوب کری

Socrates (or, according to Johnson's ' بُقراط نے ایک زبان دراز عورت سے Dictionary, Hippocrates) married a shrew in order to subdue his passion of anger.'

provided there be not as much as a ' بشرطيكِ جهُوته اِس ميں كَورْي بهر 🏂 🏅 📑 kaurī of untruth in it.'

perhaps his hand (treatment) may شاید (که .so. ) اُس کا هاته راس آوي prove successful.'

Rem. a. In sentences signifying purpose, resolution, wish, etc., the Aorist may generally be rendered in English by the gerund with to, since this corresponds to the genitive (subjective) or the dative of the Urdū gerund, and this may in most cases be substituted for the construction with the Aorist: e.g. the first of the above examples may also be constructed thus: مَين نے أُس راه سے چننے كا قصد كِيا; and the اگر تُجهے اِس ماهِيت كے دريافت كرنے كو آرزُو كمال هي :fifth thus

Rem. b. The direct oration often occurs in such subordinate clauses as express purpose or resolution: وَقَدْ كِيا كِ بَهِن كِ بِاس چليے 'and determined to go to my sister' (lit. 'that I will go'); آنگهيس دروازي 'my eyes were 'پي طرف لگ رهي تهيس كِ ديكهيے كيا ظاهِر هوتا هي (my eyes were kept fixed in the direction of the door to see what was going to appear' (lit. 'saying to myself, Let me see what is going to appear').

Rem. c. The phrases پازم کی , چاهیئے, etc., may also be constructed with the infinitive (§ 439, and Rem. b. and c). In reference to past time these phrases take the forms لازم تها , چاهیئے تها, and are followed by خ with the Past Perfect Subjunctive (the Past Conditional): eg. نجاهیئے تها کے مہاراج اپنے غضب پرغالب رکھتے کا مہاراج اپنے غضب پرغالب رکھتے to have subdued your wrath.

468. The Aorist is used to express a wish which, generally speaking, is regarded as attainable: as

may your life be prolonged! your ' عُمْر تيرِي بڙهي دَوات دُو چنّد wealth be multiplied!'

may your crown and throne (your 'جب تلک یبه زمین و آسمان بر پا sovereignty) endure as long as this رهي دميان و تخت قائم و هند دميان و تخت عائم و دميان و دميان و تخت د دميان و تخت دميان و تخت د دميان و تخت دميان و تخت د دميان و تخت دميان و تخت دميان و تخت د دميان و تخت دميان و تخت د دميان و تخت

469. The Aorist is used in questions indicating doubt or perplexity: as

''O God! what am I to do now?' اِلْهِي اب کیا کرُوں what should I say? and of whom کیا کہُوں اَور کِسْکا شِکّوہ کرُوں ''should I complain?

should I call it Indra's sourt, or a وَنُدرِكَا الْهَارُّا كَهُرَى يَا يُرِيون كَا أَتَارِا descent of fairies?'

470. The second person, singular and plural, of the Aorist is used as a disjunctive conjunction: e.g.

I say nothing: remain or go (as 'آ مَسِن نهِين کهتا رهو چاهو جاؤ "you please."

### II. THE PRESENT POTENTIAL.

471. The Present Potential, as its name implies, occurs chiefly in potential propositions, with a definite or indefinite subject, and indicates that a thing may, might, or must be happening: it corresponds therefore to the English Present Imperfect Subjunctive. It stands to the Aorist in the same relation as the Present Imperfect Indicative to the Present Indefinite; and hence the Aorist is often used in its place. Of the two forms in which it occurs, that in which the future of the verb up is used may occasionally be rendered in English by the Future Imperfect Indicative; but those who speak the language recognize no distinction between the two forms. The following are examples of its use:

what must he be thinking?' (lit. 'saying in his mind').

perhaps you think (lit. may be ' شاید تُو جانْتا هوگا کِ مُجَکویِه نیم thinking) that I have become مشقّت حاصِل هوئِي possessed of all this comfort and wealth without trouble.'

ن أيسے غريب هزاروں تُمهاري مُلْكوں 'thousands of such poor people must 'thousands of such poor people must be constantly passing through (lit. may be coming and going in) your dominions.'

that ruler ought to be well ac- وُه حاكِم أيسا هونا چاهيئے ك ساست کے قاعِدی خُوب quainted with (lit. such as may جانتا هو be knowing well) the laws of government.'

'and if the king look (lit. be looking) أور جو بادشاء بيدار هو سلطنت کے کارو بار پر توجُّه کرتا هو تو كسى طرح سلطنت مين خلل نہیں آتا

there is no such sentence in his اُسكے كلام ميں كوئي فِقْرد أيسا نِہیں ھی جِس سے کِسِی کِی بد خواهِي ثابت هوتِي هو

watchfully after the affairs of his kingdom, no disturbance by any means enters the realm.'

discourse whereby malevolence towards any one may be proved.'

## III. THE PAST POTENTIAL.

472. The Past Potential is employed when it is indicated that a thing may, might, or must have happened. It has two forms, corresponding to those of the Present Potential, but no distinction is generally made between them: e.g.

Your Majesty may (or must) have آپ نے یہہ بیت سُنِي هوگي · heard this couplet.'

God knows what their state may 'خدا جانے أنّكِي كيا حالت هُوني have been.'

what a very charming residence بحِس وقبت تَسَيَارِي إِس كِي (هُوئِي .80) هوگِي كَيا هِي مكانِ دِل حِسْپ بنا هوگا

must have been made when it was first constructed' (lit. 'when its preparation may have taken place'). 'he mentions the kindnesses which ha اپنے اَور اپنے بُزُرگوں کے اِحْسان or his forefathers may have done مُرُرگوں کِي نِسْبت هُوئے هوں بیان کرّتا هی

do you also mention whatever تیری گُرود نے جو ظُلْم آدوبیوں کے oppression your tribe may have

Rem. The third of the above examples is thus rendered in Prof. Monier Williams' Hindūstānī Grammar (p. 136, § 510): "When it shall be repaired, what a charming place it will be made." But although this tense may sometimes be rendered in English by the Future Perfect, it is never used in the sense of, and can certainly never be rendered by, the Future Indefinite.

## IV. THE PAST CONDITIONAL.

473. The Past Conditional corresponds to the English Past Perfect Subjunctive. It has two forms, the one (which is that most commonly used) consisting simply of the imperfect participle of a verb; the other of the perfect participle in combination with the imperfect participle of the verb ...

474. The Past Conditional is used in correlative conditional clauses that depend upon اگر, or any particle having the sense of اگر. In the leading clause it may generally be rendered in English by the Future Perfect Subjunctive: e.g.

'had you seen what I have seen, you 'had you seen what I have seen, you 'هي هرگِزائنگ پاس نه آتا 'would never have come near them.'

جومعہدے مرید کرنے کی خواهش نه هوتِی تو مَیں چورکِی چرّب زبانی سے فریب نہ کھاتا

of what use would a blind son have ' انَّدها بيتًا تُمهاري كِس كام آتا؟ جو <sup>گُ</sup>چھ بیٿا کرتا مَیں بھِي کر سکتا ھُوں

so that the evils which would result 'تا کہ اُسکے فسان سے جو ضرر کیدا هوتے نہ هونے بائیں

had any one else committed such 'اگر کِسِي أور نے یہہ حرکتِ بےمعنی کی هوتی اُسکی بوتِیاں کِٹُوا چیلوں کو بانتَتِي

if the desire to make a disciple had not possessed me, I should not have been deceived by a thief's oiliness of speech.'

been to you? I too can do whatever a son would have done.' (The is here under-اگر هوتا stood in both sentences.)

(lit. would have resulted) from his mischief (were he permitted to practise it) be not allowed to happen.'

senseless impropriety of conduct, I would have had him cut into mince-meat, and portioned it out to the kites.'

you would have been unjustly (or ' تُو ناحتی مارا گیا هوتا پر بھے گیا needlessly) killed, (had you been killed), but you (have) escaped.'

Rem. a. The condition, as we have shown in some of the above examples, is sometimes omitted. It is occasionally implied in a negative clause preceding the principal clause: e.g. مَين نے اُس ميں کچھ I perceived nothing grand' شُکوہ نہ دیکھی جو زور اُس کا در یافت کرتا in him to make me test (lit. that I should have tested) his strength. This sentence is taken from the Khirad Afroz (p. 62), and the following note upon it by the editor of the work serves to show how completely

the Past Conditional Tense is misunderstood by European grammarians: "The agrist instead of the present here, and a neuter verb instead of an active, might well be expected. As it is, the sentence is quite ungrammatical."

- Rem. b. As it is sometimes necessary to render the Past Perfect Indicative of the Urdū by the English Past Imperfect, so the Past Conditional has occasionally to be rendered in English by the Past Imperfect Subjunctive. Such is the case in the fourth of the above examples. (cf. § 457.)
- 475. Instead of the Past Conditional, the Past Perfect Indicative is occasionally used in the principal clause, for the sake of greater vividness; but it may be rendered in English by the Past Indefinite; as

had it not been for this wise enemy, اگریے، دانا دُشمن نہ هوتا my work was well nigh gone from أور جان ميري اِس خيال ميں my hands, and my life brought to a close in (pursuit of) this idea.

476. The Past Conditional is also used to express a wish for a thing that is regarded as unattainable, and is then commonly preceded by the conjunction کاشک or کاشک 'O that!' 'would that!' e.g.

would that I (lit. we) had not left them behind there!

would that I had not cherished a کاشکے تُمهارِی خِدْمت میں فوتی اَور یہہ devoted attachment to you, and بندگی پیدا نہ کِی هوتِی اَور یہہ that you (lit. the master) had not shown for me the tenderness which you have shown and still show (lit. which you are showing)!

Rem. The use of کائیک however is not always necessary; a wish may be implied even in a conditional sentence: e.g. اگر زید هوتا تو کیا 'If Zaid were (or, had been) here, how nice it would be (or, would have been)' = 'I wish Zaid were (or had been) here.'

#### e. THE PASSIVE VOICE.

477. When the agent of an act is to be named, the Active Voice must be employed (except in such tenses as are composed of a perfect participle of directly transitive verbs, which are undoubtedly passive in construction, though regarded as active by those who speak Urdū). But the subject of a sentence is frequently not specified, either because it is not known, or it is not desired to mention it. The speaker, however, has the option of expressing himself personally by such forms as بنے کہتے کی 'people say' (Fr. on dit), کہّنے والا کہّنا کھی one calls' (or 'it is called'), or کہّلاتا کھی one says, or one who is in a position to say, says;' or by means of the Passive Voice used impersonally, in the third person singular masculine; as نیکیا جائیگا 'it will be seen to;' or personally as explained in the next paragraph.

478. The personal passive is commonly used in Urdū; the direct object or accusative of the active voice becoming the subject of the passive: e.g.

'when a hole a yard deep was dug.' جب ایک گزیمین گڑھا کھوں اگیا 'it (the following fact) has been proved in philosophical works.' when a lie is told regarding any one 'جب جهُوبِتي بات کِسِي کِي to make it appear that he has بیان کی جائے faults.'

you had been unjustly killed, but " تُو ناحتى مارا گيا هوتا پر ج گيا
you escaped.'

Rem. If the accusative in the active voice be constructed with مرکم, the same form may be retained in the passive; but the passive then becomes impersonal: e.g. يادّگار كے لِحاظ سے اگر اُسْكو بھي ديكھا جاوي 'if it too be viewed as a memorial;' lit. 'if it be looked at in reference to it also as a memorial.'

479. If the verb in the active voice governs two accusatives, that which has the nominative form, or which is next to the verb, becomes the nominative to the passive: as

if the two be compared;' lit. 'if comparison in reference to the two be made.'

ن مناسب هي کِ اُس شخص کو 'it is right that that person be called the architect of the work;' lit. 'it is right that architect of the work be called or said in reference to 'hat person.'

Rem. b. Whether the passive be personal or impersonal, it is termed by Urdū grammarians مَا لَمْ يُسَمَّ فَاعِلُكُ mā lam yusamma fā'iluhu, 'a

verb of which the agent is not named.' In the case of a personal passive, the subject is called قائم مقام فاعل 'that which stands in the place of the agent.'

Rem. c. Impersonal actives, like our it rains, it snows, etc., are as a rule expressed personally in Urdū: e.g. رباني پڙتا هي, or رپاني پڙتا هي it rains,' lit. 'rain, or water, falls, or rains;' but the expression برستا

## f. CAUSAL VERBS.

480. The construction of causal verbs has been explained at length in § 199, et seq. If the primitive verb is intransitive, the causal is simply a transitive verb, and is constructed like other simple transitive verbs that take a single objective complement in the accusative; as منز كو هلائي أنه أنه shook the table; ' he shook the table;' but if the primitive verb is transitive, the causal takes two objective complements in the accusative, which are constructed according to the rules laid down in § 348 and Rem.: وهن المنافية في المنافية في

## g. COMPOUND VERBS.

481. Compound Verbs are of seven kinds; namely, Intensives, Potentials, Completives, Continuatives formed with an imperfect participle, Frequentatives or Con-

<sup>1</sup> By an oversight the Continuatives formed with imperfect participles, and Transitives formed with conjunctive participles, have been omitted in the enumeration of the compound verbs in § 218. The oversight has been noticed in the errata, and the reader is requested to make the corrections there pointed out.

tinuatives formed with a perfect participle, Desideratives, and Transitives formed with a conjunctive participle. To the remarks already made concerning these (see § 208, et seq.) we may here add the following:

1) Intensives.—The intensifying verb may be transitive or intransitive; if the former, the passive construction, as in the case of simple transitive verbs (§ 306, et seq.), is employed in all the tenses composed of the perfect participle: e.g. الله في ا

Rem. In some intensive compounds, the verb which indicates the act is placed last and conjugated, the intensifying member preceding it and remaining unchanged: e.g. المرويا = دي مارا 'I (or he) laid on to (him); نقل المرادية المرادية نقل 'I (or he) threw or dashed (him or it) down.'

2), 3) Potentials and Completives must always be constructed actively in the tenses composed of the perfect participle, as in the other tenses, since the verbs سُن and سُن are intransitive: e.g. سُن (not عُمُن شَن (not عُمُن شَن ) 'we have already heard.'

Rem. For the idiomatic use of the Past Indefinite Tense of verbs compounded with يُحْبُ, see § 210.

4) Continuatives, formed with an inflected imperfect participle, and one of the verbs رهنا or رهنا, cannot but take the active construction

in all the tenses, as رهنا or رهنا are intransitive verbs (cf. § 481. 1): e.g. وه أبي طرح بكّت رهني (she keeps on (or is always) prating in this same way.'

5), 6) Frequentatives or Continuatives, and Desideratives, are always actively constructed in the tenses composed of the perfect participle, since the participle which forms the first member of these compounds is used as an abstract (verbal) substantive in the accusative (§ 214), to which the act signified by the following verb (احافت ) is regarded as adhering. These compounds may take an objective complement in the accusative when the participle which forms the first member is derived from a transitive verb, but not otherwise; for the objective complement is properly that of the participle or verbal noun: e.g. منافع دينا كيات منافع منافع منافع منافع منافع منافع نود كيات كيات منافع منافع منافع منافع منافع منافع منافع منافع دينا كيات منافع منافع

striking (out) my hands and legs in the water the whole day and the whole night.'—Continuatives are also formed by prefixing an inflected perfect participle to the verb جو هم کہیں سو .see § 214, b): e.g. جائیو 'go on doing what I say without demur.'

Rem. We must here repeat that whenever a verbal substantive in any form is compounded with a transitive verb, the compound verb is actively constructed in all the tenses of the active voice: e.g. آڏوي کِي اَوْنَ سُنائِي دِي 'a man's voice was heard' (lit. 'gave a hearing,' i.e. 'made itself heard'); دو آڏوي دِکيائِي دِيئَي 'two men showed themselves, or appeared.'

7) Transitives formed with a Conjunctive Participle cannot in any case be passively constructed, for the reason given in § 481, 1: e.g. أن 'I have brought the book with me;' كِتَابِ كُو اَيْنَتِ سَاتَهِ لَايا هُوں (نُوسَ نِهِ سَاتَهِ لَايا هُوں (مُوسَ نِهِ اللهِ عُولَ (مُوسَ نِهِ اللهِ عُمُولُ (مُعَلِيْنَ عُمُولُ اللهُ عُمُولُ دُمِي 'who took away (went with) those things?' لَيَّا نُهُولُ كُمُولُ وَمِالَ حِهُولُ كُمِياً لَهُ وَمِالًا لَمُولُولُ مُعَالًا وَمُعُولُ كُمِياً لَمُ عَالَى حَمُولُ كُمِياً لَمُ عَالَى اللهُ عَمُولُ اللهُ اللهُ عَمُولُ اللهُ عَمُولُ اللهُ عَلَيْكُ عَمُولُ اللهُ عَمْلُولُ اللهُ عَلَيْكُولُ اللهُ عَمْلُولُ اللهُ عَلَيْكُمُ اللهُ عَمْلُولُ اللهُ عَلَيْكُمُ عَلَيْكُمُ اللهُ عَلَيْكُمُ اللهُ عَلَيْكُمُ عَلَيْكُمُ اللهُ عَلَيْكُمُ اللهُ عَلَيْكُمُ اللهُ عَلَيْكُمُ اللّهُ عَلَيْكُمُ عَلَاللّهُ عَمْلُولُ اللّهُ عَلَيْكُمُ اللّهُ عَلَيْكُمُ اللّهُ عَلَيْكُمُ اللّهُ عَلَيْكُمُ اللّ

Rem. Although the participle which most commonly occurs in these compounds is that of the verb لينا 'to take,' there is nothing in the nature of the construction to restrict it to this participle: 'to leave behind,' نوي جانا 'to leave, or give on (one's) way,' etc., are compounds just as much as الله and its contraction 'to come with, to bring' are; and in the mouth of a native the former no more signify "having left, to go," and "having given, to go," than the latter signifies having taken, to come.

482. Nominals, Staticals, Inceptives, Permissives, etc., are not compound verbs (see §§ 205, 213, 216). Of the Nominals we shall have more to say further on. The construction of the participles in statical forms has been fully explained in § 421, et seq. The Inceptives, etc., call for little notice beyond a few examples of their use:

- 1) Inceptives.—A gerund in the locative case, with the governing postposition suppressed, is used in connection with the verb الله بالله بالله
- 2) Permissives.—An infinitive in the dative form of the accusative, with the postposition و suppressed, is constructed with the verb بين , which in this construction has the sense of to allow or permit: as حويلي دو الله على العلم الع

commonly, though incorrectly, regarded as Compound Verbs. They consist simply of a verb and a predicative substantive or adjective, which is in the nominative case if the verb is a neuter one denoting existence (either simple or modified), and in the accusative (the nom. form) if the verb is transitive. In the first of these cases the verb agrees with its proper subject (unless the predicative substantive is defined by a genitive or adjective, § 293); and a predicative adjective, if it be declinable, also agrees in gender and number with the subject: as

if he shall not be reared in my 'اگریبه میری رُوبرُو ترَّیِیَت نه هوگا 'presence.'

'all these seven girls were standing.' یے ساتوں لُـزَّکِیاں کھڑِ تھ تھیں۔ 'that their morals become correct.' کِ اِنْکے اخْلَاق دُرُست ھو جائیں۔ 'and one's helping another is possible اَور اِعانت ایک دُوسْری کِی جب 'only when they dwell together.'

Rem. a. The predicative noun most commonly comes immediately before the verb, as in the above examples; but it may also follow the verb, as is frequently the case in poetry: e.g. اَيسِے مِهُمُانِ كِي تُو لاَزِمِ وَ وَزِيزِ 'the heart of such a guest ought indeed to be (esteemed) precious.'

Rem. b. Even what are clearly phrases are erroneously classed by European grammarians among what they term "Nominal Compounds."

Now in phrases the substantive and verb stand to each other in relations distinct from those specified above, the substantive being either in the nominative as the subject of the verb, or in an oblique case: e.g. الله على 'they remembered' (properly, 'recollection came to them'); ياد آيا هي د افسوس آتا هي الاسوس آتا هي د افسوس آتا هي د افس

you' (for the use of الآ with the Dative of the possessor see § 340); 

the fire (of hunger) kindled in (my) stomach; 

' (so. مين آگ الي (عن (مين (عن الله))) 

' I also called to mind what the 

wazīr had said' (properly, 'to me also the wazīr's saying or remark 

came into recollection'); 

وقت پر کام (مين (so. کو قت پر کام (مين (roperly, 'into use').

484. In the case where a predicative noun in the accusative is added to a transitive verb, the verb may be one which requires a single objective complement alone, or it may be a factitive verb (see § 349). In the first of these cases the predicative substantive necessarily becomes the subject of the verb in those tenses which are passively constructed with the Agent case: e.g. أَدُنكِي مارِي 'he dived (a dive was taken, lit. struck, by him).' In the second, the construction of the verb in the same tenses depends upon the accusative of the object: if this be in the nominative form, the verb (as also a predicative adjective, if it be declinable) agrees with it; but if it be in the dative form, the verb (as also the adjective) is impersonally constructed (see §§ 348—350): e.g.

شرچنّد أس قُفّل كِي كُنْجِي 'much as they scarched for the key of that lock, it was not found' (properly, 'much as the key of that lock was made search for by them,' etc.).

he dismissed the demon' (properly, 'there was performed by him the act of dismissing in reference to the demon').

he made the cart stationary' ('the cart was made stationary by him').

اڑي کو کھڙا کِي 'he made the cart stationary' (properly, 'it was made stationary by him in respect to the cart').

constructed tenses) can agree with the complementary accusative are those in which by a change of construction this becomes really or virtually the only accusative in the sentence: e.g. 1) when a sentence following the verb takes the place of the object; as غرض كيا كي 'he made representation, saying;' (here however some writers would put the verb in the masc. sing. عرض كيا كي , to agree with the objective clause (see § 307); 2) when the place of the object is supplied by a substantive which is governed in the genitive by the predicative substantive; as يعريف كي تعريف كي 'the king praised it' ('the act of praising was performed by the king in respect of it'); 3) when the factitive verb is connected by أور تنبيد كي 'and,' with another verb that stands nearest to the common object of the two verbs, this object being in the dative form of the accusative; as أور تنبيد كي 'he reproved and admonished the magistrate's poons.'

Rem. b. If the predicative substantive is determined by a genitive, it may be separated from the verb by one or more words; as إلى قُوت كا في أور روني و غَيره سي كرّتا هي 'it (a child) manifests this faculty by screaming and crying.'

## CHAPTER XI.

## PARTICLES.

## I. ADVERBS.

485. The rules for the construction of adverbs are given in § 283, et seq. Sentences like the following are in nowise opposed to those rules, since نبين is both a negative adverb and a negative verb (= فر نبي نبي see § 148, Rem.), and in the latter sense therefore may stand last in the sentence:

the form and fashion of one agrees ایک کِی سجّدهج سے دُوسّری کا not with the shape and figure of another.'

there is no order to open the gate ' اِس وَقَّت دَرُوازَهُ كَهُولُنِي كَا حُكُمُ at this time.'

486. The particle تر, which has both a conditional and an emphatic force, is often added to the negative رنهیس, forming in the one case an alternative conjunction (see § 499), in the other an emphatic adverb signifying no indeed.

Rem. The adverb تو is often used idiomatically in Urdū, and is untranslateable: e.g. کر تو سېيي 'just do it.' After the verb دیکها تو دیکه تو دیکها تو دیکها تو دیکها تو دیکها تو دیکها تو دیکه تو دیکها تو دیکها

سب اپنے کام میں مضرُوف کی 'he looked, and lo! they were all engaged in their respective tasks.'

487. The adverb کہاں 'where?' is idiomatically joined to two different subjects to indicate a very great difference, marked contrast, or incompatibility, between them or their circumstances: as

otherwise what possibility was there i نویس تو مکیں کہاں آور تُو کہاں 'otherwise what possibility was there of our meeting?' (lit. 'where I and where thou? our paths lay so wide apart that we could never have met, but for this accident').

this speech is quite unsuitable to ' تُو کہاں اَور بِہہ بات کہاں ' thy position.'

there is no comparison between ' کہاں راجا بھوج کہاں گنگا تیلي ".King Bhoj and Gangā the oilman

Rem. Compare with this use of しんくーしん that of 新一新 kvaーkva in Sanskrit.

488. The adverb هي (or بري) may be added for emphasis to any part of speech, and may generally be rendered in English by very, the very same, but, alone, etc., though sometimes simple stress upon the word to which it is joined (shown in writing by the use of italics) is sufficient: e.g.

(my) heart alone knows.' برل هِي جانّتا هَي '(my) heart alone knows.' ايک هِي حمّلے ميں 'in one single (or in but one) assault.' وهي جوان آيا 'the very same young man came.' ليكِن أس كے دم ميں آهِي گئيي 'but (after all) she did yield to her caioling.'

## II. PREPOSITIONS AND POSTPOSITIONS.

- 489. Prepositions and Postpositions serve to show the relation of one substantive to another, or to some other word in the sentence.
- 490. Some postpositions govern a noun in the Formative only, some in the genitive case only, some take the governed noun in the Formative or the genitive. Lists of the prepositions and postpositions together with the case they govern are given in §§ 236-240. The following are a few that have special significations or uses in addition to those specified in the lists:
  - 1) i before, is used of comparison: e.g.

such is the reflection of the flower- عَكْسِ گُلْشَن يِهِ وَمِين پر هَي كِ such is the reflection of the flower- garden on the ground that, compared therewith, the painting of Mānī (Manes) stands second, it first.'

Rem. The postposition \_\_\_\_ 'in front,' may be used in the same sense.

2) ساته, which as a postposition signifies 'with,' 'along with,' as a preposition, with a demonstrative pronoun following, usually signifies in addition to, notwithstanding or although (= the Persian باوْجُود): e.g.

Mohan went away to Ilāhābād ' موهن زَيد کے ساتھ اِلدآباں چلا گيا (Allahabad) along with Zaid.

in addition to that life will pass 'ساتھ اُس کے عُمْر مِحنْت کے ساتھ with trouble (or difficulty).' notwithstanding that (or although) ساتھ اُسْکے کِ وُہ آپ چہوٹا اَور he himself be small and feeble ناتُواں ھو اَور دُشْمن اُسْکا قوِي and his foe powerful, there is still hope of victory.

3) طرف 'towards,' 'to,' is used both of local direction and of feeling or conduct, generally preceding, in this sense, an Arabic verbal noun: e.g.

he is gone towards (or to) the market;' (the corresponding Hindī postpositions in this construction are تك and كو).

tender compliments from me' (lit. 'from my side' = Fr. de ma part).

he becomes inclined to (fond of) very بُرِي بُرِي باتوں كِي طرف مَيكلان evil things;' (the corresponding Hindī postposition in this sense is اله

to become suspicious of (lit. to-کِسِي شُخْص کِي طرف سے بدگُماں wards) a person.'

he needs the labours of several 'کئِی شخصوں کے کاموں کِی طرف 'persons.'

Rem. In both the above senses the postposition طرف is the Urdū rendering of the Arabic preposition إلى ; and the idiom in sentences like the last three of the above is borrowed from the Arabic. The postposition جانب 'side, direction,' is rarely used of feeling or conduct.

4) نـزويك 'near,' as a postposition, is often used in the sense of in one's opinion (like the Lat. apud, and the Fr. chez), a sense in which قريب and ياس do not occur: e.g. 'in the opinion of the wise.'

491. A feminine postposition requires the noun it governs in the genitive to be constructed with  $\leq$  in agreement with itself; but if the postposition be used as a preposition, i.e. precede the noun it governs (which can only occur when it is a Persian or Arabic word), the genitive of the governed noun will be constructed with  $\leq$  (see § 243): e.g.

ر تاري کي مانِنّد تاري کے اندّ تاري کے انبّد tike a star.' , تاري کي مانِنّد تاري کے (concerning him or it.' , اس کی بابت اُس کے اُس کے اُس کے میں (they are like physicians and astrologers.'

by the aid of the understanding.', بمدد عقّل کے, 'by the aid of the understanding.'

in accordance with (or according to) your ordering (= order).'

In the first of these cases the construction is that of the Hindī, in the second that of the Persian (whence the occurrence of none but Persian or Arabic prepositions in the construction).¹ The use of the genitive affix is due to the influence of a Persian preposition (most commonly a), which governs the postposition in the genitive. This preposition, though not expressed in the case of بابت, etc., is implied in the construction, and, being originally a masculine noun, requires the use of the affix in the genitive of the governed noun. The same

<sup>1</sup> This construction is not only employed with "some of the feminine prepositions," as European grammarians say, but with all such as are Persian or Arabic words. Not is it "arbitrary": no Urdū scholar would, we are assured, say or write مانیک پروانیه mānind parwāne kī, 'like a moth;' but as no distinction is usually made in writing between majhūl and ma'rūf ye, it is quite possible for an Englishman to mistake کے for kī, when the writer intends it for ke (کے).

e.g. بے مرضي حُضُور کے , without her highness' pleasure; بے مرضي حُضُور کے , without her highness' pleasure; بے مرضي حُضُور کے , without advice and counsel. It is true that we also meet with such constructions as اسکی بے مرضی , with his or her displeasure; but in such cases بے is a prefix, not a separate preposition, and the words بے مرضی , etc., are treated as simple Hindī postpositions.

Rem. If the preposition نب is expressed, even a preceding genitive is constructed with the affix کے: as قادِر مُطْلق خُدا کے بنسبت آدمی, how very insignificant is man compared to the Almighty! And not only does به, expressed or implied, require the genitive to be constructed with کے, but, according to the native grammarians, کے is in some instances used as the equivalent of نب (see § 318, Rem.).

#### III. CONJUNCTIONS.

492. The combination of coordinate and subordinate propositions is effected by means of conjunctions.

Rem. Lists of some of the principal conjunctions are given in § 247.

- 493. Coordinate Combination.—The conjunctions used in coordinate combination are the Connective (Copulative, Disjunctive, Alternative, Negative), Adversative, Exceptive, and Conclusive.
- 494. The Connective conjunctions do not affect the structure of a sentence. ), 'and,' is the one most used simply to connect words and sentences. But the omission of it (Asyndeton) is of frequent occurrence (see §§ 217, 275, 362).

# is also used idiomatically to denote:

- 1) The almost simultaneous occurrence of the acts indicated by the verbs in two propositions which it connects; as بفور تُمهاري النّهند كد = ) تُم النّه الله الور خرابي آبي ), you rose and evil came ('no sooner did you rise than evil ensued').
- 2) Inseparable connection of two subjects; as مَسِ هُوں آور (تُعَلِيلُ اللهِ عَلَيْهِ اللهِ عَلَيْهِ اللهُ عَلَيْهِ اللهُ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ اللهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهُ اللهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهُ اللهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلِي عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْ
- 3) Defiance or threat; as پیر مَیں هُوں اَور ثُم هو then I am and you are (i.e. 'now I will settle accounts with you'); اب تُو جاں اَور بڙا بُت جانے, now you know and the great idol will know ('the great idol will settle accounts with you').
- 497. The disjunctive conjunction یا "or" (as an alternative یا با "either—or"), is used in the sense of both the Latin vel and aut: e.g. کوئی مهاجن یا بَیپارِی اُنکے برآبر نہ تھا, no merchant or trader came up to him; جو کوئی مُسافِر فقیر یا "any traveller, (whether) a devotee or a man of the world, who enters this city.

Rem. يا نه is sometimes used to indicate a remarkable contrast arising from a sudden change; as يا مُع رَونتى تهي يا سُن سان هو گيا, but now there was that (such) display, and the next moment all became desolate.

- 498. The conjunction  $\leq$ , which more commonly occurs in subordinate clauses, is also used as a disjunctive, signifying 'or:' e.g. وهال تُم جاؤگ کِ مَمِيل , will you go there or shall I? ثم نے کُچھ عِلْم منطق کا بیمی سیکھا هَي کِ نہیں, have you learned anything of the science of logic also or not?

Rem. The following are examples of some of the remaining disjunctive conjunctions: يُمْكُو جانے نہ دُونگا بُرا مانو خواہ بھلا , I will not let you go, (whether you) take it ill or well; مَين نہيں كَہْنا چاھو رھو , 'I say nothing; either go or remain, as you please.' For examples of كيا—كيا see § 397.

500. The Adversative conjunctions are مگر,لیکی (which however is more commonly exceptive), بنکر, etc., signifying but, yet, still, but rather, on the contrary. They are used in stating a proposition which alters, limits, or sets aside what has preceded, and do not affect the struc-

501. The Exceptive conjunctions are الكربي, which is a signifying only, but, but not, except. They are used to exclude the case in which the assertion does not hold good: e.g. موهن نهيس آيا (نيكي كه آذم ي آئه مگر (ليكن (نيكي آئه مگر اليكن آيا)) موهن نهيس آيا ('all the brotherhood came, but Mohan did not come ('all came except Mohan'). The thing excepted may be totally different in kind from the general term; as سب شهرزادي آئه all the princes came (lit. had come), but not their troops.

Rem. مگر is sometimes used, as in Persian, in the sense of شاید 'perhaps:' as اسکو گھر کے دروازی پر as, this feelingless husband of mine perhaps saw him at the door of the house.

اس 502. The Conclusive or Illative conjunctions are المائدة بين بير وير والمنتاج والمائدة بين بين بير والمنتاج والمائدة بين بين بين بين بين والمائدة بين بين بين بين بين والمائدة والم

following are examples of their use: پہنت سے خرابیاں نے بہت سے خرابیاں نے بہت سے خرابیاں نے بہت سے خرابیاں کے اگر میں اور اُن سے بچنا دُشوار هي ۔ اِس لِیئے مصلحت یہ سمال بھی کہ آڈمی خاموشی اِختیار کری بھی جاموشی اِختیار کری بہت انوں, many evils spring from the tongue, and to avoid them is difficult, it is therefore advisable that a man observe silence; راجہ نے حُکم دِیا کِ خزانوں, the king ordered that they should open the doors of the treasuries, and such was accordingly done; کئی باتیں خِیال میں گُذریں لِہٰذا فِدُوِي , several things passed through his mind, and consequently your devoted slave smiled.

503. Subordinate Combination.—The conjunctions employed in subordinate combination are the Hypothetical, Temporal, Concessive, Comparative, Causal, and Final.

ing synonymous, the one is sometimes used for the other; as أور اگريه سب سامان, and even if all these pliances, and even if all these pliances be obtained, then even it is evident, etc.; جب آڏوي کو ايسا , when a man عرب علم حاصِل هو تو اُس سے حکمت حاصِل هو سکتي هي acquires such knowledge, wisdom may thereby be attained.

Rem. تو is now commonly used instead of تو as the correlative of جب

is sometimes used in the sense جو is sometimes used in the sense of جب ; as جو اُسْكو كبولْكر ديكها تو وُه جوان آور اُسْكِي رنَّّذِي سِركَتَّه ; when he opened it and looked, lo! that young man and his paramour were (lit. are) lying beheaded.

in combination with the postpositions جب in combination with the postpositions (or (which however rarely occurs in modern Urdū), forms temporal conjunctions, signifying whilst, until, as long as; and the same postpositions are repeated after the correlative بن when this is expressed. These conjunctions are construed with the Indicative or the Subjunctive (the Aorist, which is however rendered in English by the Present Indicative), according as simple fact or contingency (design, etc.) is indicated. They are often followed by the negative in continuous indicated. They are often followed by the negative in continuous indicated. They are often followed by the negative in continuous indicated.

my heart be fixed; جب تلک اُسکا دم نہیں نکٹتا دم نہیں لینے, as long as his breath (life) does not depart, they give him no peace (lit. 'do not let him take breath'); so long as he suffers no harm, he will not know my value; جب لگ کی اُسکا نُقصان نہ ہوگا تب لگ میری قدر نہ جانیگا long as he suffers no harm, he will not know my value; جب تک جوان نہ ہو باہر نہ نِکلیے, let him not come out (of the harem) as long as he is not a man (shall not have attained to manhood); یہاں رہو جب تک تُمہاری آرزُو بر آوی, remain here till your desire is fulfilled.

ود., 'although,' 'even if.' The latter is usually construed with the Subjunctive (the Aorist); the former with the Indicative or the Subjunctive, according as a simple fact is expressed or not: e.g. اگرْچ طاقت بولنے کِي نہ تھِي آهِسَّتے ہے آهِسَّتے ہے, although she had not the strength to speak, she said faintly, Thank God! کیا شکر هي آئکي داد کو پہننچتا هُـوں! , even I dispense justice to them, although they be unbelievers; اگرُچ وي کافرهوں أور گو سب عادتيں اچھي نہ هوں جس قدر, and even though اور گو سب عادتيں اچھي هوسکيں اُئکے دُرست کرنے ميں دِل لگائے دار کو سب عادتيں احتھي هوسکيں اُئکے دُرست کرنے ميں دِل لگائے دار ور ور حسن قدر (his) habits may not become good, let him labour carnestly to correct them to the extent that it is possible for them to be good.

510. The Comparative conjunctions are those which express a resemblance. They are المحبية 'as,' كويا 'as if:' e.g. وي 'as if:' e.g. جيسا رائے دابِشَلِيم كا مُلْكُ آسُودة أور رعِيّت فارغ بال تهي مع Rāre Dābishlīm's kingdom was tranquil, and his subjects contented; وهر گيز هوا اسكو نهيي گويا فائوس اسكي آسمان هي جيس لگتي گويا فائوس اسكي آسمان هي

the wind never touches it; (it is) as if the sky is its shade.

- 511. The Causal conjunctions are those which are used in stating a reason. They are , 5, and others which are compounds formed with کی میونک ,اس واسطے کے as کی وائک کیونک ,اس واسطے کے They may mostly be translated for, because, since, seeing that, inasmuch as, etc. The following are examples of اِسْکے دِل میں تو محبّت اب تلک باقِی کھی جو اِس : their use in her heart , جان كندني كي حالت ميس أسكو ياد كرتي هي indeed affection still lingers, seeing that she remembers میری یکڑنے کی خاطِر جو قبُول کِیا هَی ; him in this death-agony fulfil what you agreed , يُورا کروكِ صارى ڌِيل ميں زباں حلال هَي to for my capture, for in the whole body the tongue is (the only) free (and therefore responsible member); أشكي بات کا اِعْتِبار نہ کری اِس واسطے کِ چُغُل خور اکثر اِعْتِبار کے قابل نہیں ہوتا let him put no faith in his statement, for a tale-bearer, generally speaking, is not deserving of credit; زر و جواهِر پر فریقّت ہونا دانِشّمنّدوں کا کام نہیں کیُوٹکِہ وُہ کِسِی کے پاس نہیں رہّتے it is not the work of the wise to be infatuated with gold and jewels, since those (things) abide with no one.
- 512. Final conjunctions are used to denote the purpose or consequence of an action. They are constructed with the Subjunctive, as shown in § 467. To the examples there given may be added the following: شاهِ بندر کے خَوف میں بند کیا شاہِ بندر کے خوف میں بند کیا , through fear of the harbour-superintendent, they locked up their slave-girls in (their) chests, lest he should take them by force.

Rem. The particle & has other significations and uses besides those noticed above (§§ 498, 507, 511, 512). It is sometimes used (as in Persian) in the sense of jl 'than;' but this can only occur in Persian construction: as رایک آدمی مری بهتر که تمام شهر , better one man perish than the whole city. It is of frequent occurrence as a simple explicatory particle: 1) at the head of an adjective (qualificative, descriptive), or conjunctive clause, as exemplified in § 390; 2) at the head of a saying or speech (مقرف), which stands as the object of a preceding verb, or, generally, at the beginning of an objective clause: as معرف المعاددة على المعاددة المعاددة

## CHAPTER XII.

## ON THE DIRECT ORATION.

513. The indirect oration is rarely employed in Urdū. The words and thoughts of a person are usually expressed in the direct oration, introduced by the particle  $\leq$ , which however is frequently omitted (cf. also § 445): e.g.

القلِ جہاز سے معلوم دُوا کِ اُس 'I learned from the people of the ship that the Antichrist dwelt in that island' (lit. 'I learned from the people of the ship "Antichrist lives, etc."').

if it is your intention to enter the 'if the city' (lit. 'if this is thy intention: "I will enter, etc."').

he told me my sister was sick' (lit. 'he said to me, ''Thy sister is sick'').

he pondered how he should carry 'فِكْر مِين گياكِ كِس صُورت سے أَن away those rubies' (lit. 'how shall I carry away, etc.').

ن میں نے اُن سے کہا تُمہاری سانھ 'I told them that I also would 'accompany them' (lit. 'I said to them, "I also will accompany you").

E ...

## APPENDIX.

## ON THE CALENDAR.

The following remarks on the Musalman and Hindu Calendars are mostly taken from Forbes's Hindustani Grammar.

## THE MOHAMMADAN CALENDAR.

"The Musalmans reckon by lunar time, their era called the Hijra commencing from the day on which Mohammad retreated from Mekka to Medina; which, according to the best accounts, took place on Friday, the 16th of July (18th new style), A.D. 622. Their year consists of 12 lunations, amounting to 354 days and 9 hours, very nearly; and hence their New Year's Day will happen every year about eleven days earlier than in the preceding year."

"To find the Christian year corresponding to that of the Hijra, apply the following rule:—From the given number of Musalman years deduct three per cent., and to the remainder add the number 621.54; the sum is the period of the Christian era at which the given current Musalman year ends. This rule is founded on the fact that 100 lunar years are very nearly equal to 97 solar years, the difference being about eighteen days only."

"When great accuracy is required, and when the year, month, and day of the Moḥammadan era are given, the precise period of the Christian era may be found very nearly, as follows:—Express the Musalmān date in years and decimals of a year; multiply by '97; to the product add 621.54: and the sum will be the period of the Christian cra."

"The Mohammadan or lunar months are made to consist of thirty and twenty-nine days alternately, but in a period of thirty years it is found necessary to intercalate the last month eleven times, so as to be reckoned thirty days instead of twenty-nine. The months retain their Arabic names in all Mohammadan countries, as follows:"

#### LUNAR MONTHS.

4	DAYS.	• .			D.	AYS.
möḥarram		rajab .				
şafar صفر rabī'u'l-awwal ربِيعُ الْأَوْل	29	sha'bān شعبان				
		ramazān رمضان				30
rabī'u 'ṣ-ṣānī ربيعُ ٱلقَانِي rabī'u 'l-ā <u>kh</u> ir ربيعُ ٱلآخِر	)	shawwāl شوّال				
rabī'u'l-ākhir ربيع ٱلآخِر	) 29	يَن يَن عَده zi'l-ka'da غِي تَعْده يَعِ يَعَده عَده عَده عَده عَده عَده عَده عَده	a )			0.0
jumāda'l-awwa جُمادَي ٱلآول	<i>l</i> 30	ي قعده ي تعده ي تعدد	}	•	•	<i>5</i> 0
jumāda's-ṣānī جُمادَي ۗ ٱلنّانِي jumāda'l-ā <u>kh</u> ir	( )	zi'l-ḥijja دِي الْحِجَه	)			00
jumāda'l-ākhir جُمادَي ٱلآخِر	.) 29	zi'l-ḥijja ذِي الْعِجَه يَوْرِي حِجّه يَوْرِي حِجّه	}	•	•	29

The following are the days of the week in Urdū, Hindī, and Persian:

	URDU.	HINDI.	PERSIAN.
Sun.	itwar إتّوار	rabī-bār ربيبار	yak-shamba يكشنبه
Mon.	pīr پير (or سوموار)	80m-bār سومبار	du-shamba دُو شنّبة
Tues.	mangal منگل	mangal-bär منگلبار	sih-shamba سِنْبَهُ
Wed.	budh بُدھ	budh-bār بُدهّبار	-chahar چهار شنبه
Thurs.	jum'a جُمْعة رات	ئىسپتبار brihaspati-	shamba پنجشنبه panj·sham-
	rāt čenž jum'a	30x	ba
Fri.	aes jum'a	عىڭربار sukra-bār	قرينه آدِينه adīna
Sat.	sanīchar سنڌير	sanībār سنِيبار	shamba شنّبه or مغّته or hafta

The Hindus regard the day as commencing at midnight, as we do; but the Moḥammadans regard it as commencing at the preceding evening, so that 'the night of a certain day,' in the mouth of a Musalmān, signifies 'the night of the previous day.' For example جُمْعَ كِي رات 'Friday night,' is really 'Thursday night' according to our way of reckoning

#### THE HINDU CALENDAR.

The Hindū year is divided into twelve equal portions which nearly correspond to our solar months. The month again is divided into two parts, each called pakh, 'lunar fortnight.' The first pakh extends from new to full moon, and is called sudī, 'the light fortnight;' the second extends from full to new moon, and is called badī, 'the dark fortnight.' "All festivals and dates are reckoned, not by the solar months, but by the duration of the moon which terminates in each. Hence although the month Baisākh begins de jure about the 11th of April, it may have commenced de facto from one day to twenty-eight days sooner. When two new moons occur during one solar month, which happens once in three years, there is an intercalary month, and the month so intercalated receives the name of the one which preceded it, that is of the solar month within which the two new moons may happen."

The era however which is commonly used by the Hindus of the northern half of India is that called *sambat* (Sanskrit *samvat*, 'year'), which dates from the month *Kātik* of the year 57 B.C. when king Vikramāditya is supposed to have ascended the throne of Ujjain.

Another common era, especially in Southern India, is that of Śālivā-hana. It is called aka, and dates from the month *Chait* of the year 78 A D.

The following are the names of the Hindū solar months:

These are in common use among both Hindus and Musalmans. But the names of the English months are also often used at the present time especially in official correspondence.











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